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THE Journal of Home Economics

For those interested in Homemaking, Institution Management, and Educational Work in Home Economics

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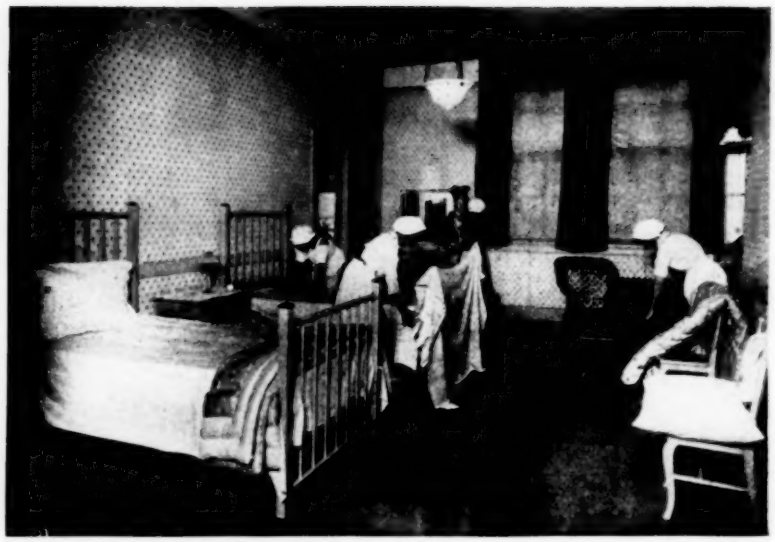

THE LUX SCHOOL OF INDUSTRIAL TRAINING, SAN FRANCISCO, CAL. (See page 170)

THE
Journal of Home Economics

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A GASTRONOMIC TOUR

LENORE HANNA COX

The Man of the Family came into the house in much excitement. "Have you seen that the *Ancona* was torpedoed?" was his abrupt greeting. A feminine chorus "How terrible! Horrible! This frightful war!" responded; and then a plaintive voice asked, "*Do* you suppose the cook was still on her?" A sorrowful silence was the only answer; no one knew, but all feared. A few years ago the Family voyaged to Naples on the *Ancona* and since then that cook had lived in memory and is spoken of with respectful awe. It is great luck to be introduced to the *cuisine* of a foreign country by a genius. During the seventeen days of our leisurely journey no dish was repeated except by special request, so varied was the menu, so versatile the artist. Cooking and service were distinctly Italian, and the Family now rates good Italian cooking with the best in the world.

The Italians follow the Continental custom of the "little breakfast," early coffee, seldom accompanied even by bread, never by butter, which but for foreign consumption would be an almost unknown article in Italy. I recall a boarding-school in Switzerland where the Italian pensionnaires gladly exchanged their portion of breakfast butter for the sugar of the American or English student.

The noon meal, *colazione*, is introduced by the *antipasti*, for which we have no word except the not very descriptive "relishes,"—tiny salted fishes, others dressed with oil, delicious black ripe olives—which Americans are slowly learning to like—crisp fresh radishes, and here for the foreigner, butter, with the sweet, well baked, not-too-white Italian bread. This is followed by a course peculiarly Italian; *maccaroni*, it

may be (*not* the eternally baked-with-cheese of American tables); *risotto*, rice with various seasonings; *gnocchi*, a farinaceous dish that varies with the location, usually our cornmeal mush raised to the *nth* degree. Then a meat course which may be commonplace, followed by one of the Italian cheeses, richer and more succulent than the French cheese, and new or old as one desires. Of this delectable meal Baedecker remarks, "The usual viands for *colazione* are ham, sausages, cutlets, beefsteaks and eggs." *Pranzo*, dinner, is more often conventional, is served early, and there is a little supper about nine.

What memories wake at mention of these dishes! Memories of quaint, old-world, out-of-the-way *trattorie*, where one finds the native dishes in the native manner. We have expressed a wish for *gnocchi Romaine*, which of course should be eaten in Rome. We descend the Spanish Stairs, lingering as always, to look at the groups of artist's models in peasant costume, and the flower sellers who use the steps as display stands and fill the gray old square with brilliant color. Then we follow our guide, who is also "philosopher and friend," a couple of hundred yards down one of the narrow streets that open from the Piazza di Spagna, opposite the steps. Passing through an archway and along a paved passage we come to a courtyard, with a few stunted trees and a straggling flower-bed, and on one side find the *trattoria* we seek. We are the only women, but our friend is evidently an accustomed guest. It is a very simple place, low-ceiled, bare floor, and the *antipasti* consist only of crisp little radishes and ripe olives; then comes the *gnocchi*, made of potatoes, masked, molded into slightly cup-shaped forms about an inch in diameter, sprinkled with grated Parmesan, dotted with butter or a little oil, and baked to a golden brown; rich and delectable. The "cutlet Milanaise" which follows takes its name from the rich sauce of tomato, truly the *pomo d'oro* the "golden apple" of Italy, used as an adjunct to almost every form of food; and with the cutlet come tiny artichokes, so young, so tender, that they are fried whole in deep oil and eaten with joy. With this, one drinks one of the good clean table wines for which Italy is famous; in this instance (we drink the *vino del paese* whenever possible), it is *Frascati*, which seems to have a classical flavor, though one remembers that Horace preferred *Falernian* probably brought from his estates near Naples.

That city, by the way, is one abounding in sweets. True daughter of the South, it is not only the *dolce far niente* but material *dolces* which

it loves. Here they have borrowed the art of preserved and crystallized fruits from Sicily, where it exists in perfection. It may be imagination but I think *torrone di Napoli* better and richer than all other *torrones*, and each city in Italy boasts its own. *Torrone* is a sort of sublimated chocolate fudge, soft and rich, and full as possible of either roasted filberts or almonds, and is sold cut into luscious looking thick slices—for what seems to the American consumer a most modest price.

Nowhere else does one see maccaroni in such vast quantities and varying shapes as in Naples. It comes in tubes, thick, thin or medium; in ribbons of varying widths; in spirals, in balls, in alphabets, in numerous other shapes, sometimes hung on clotheslines to dry in wind and sun, sometimes spread on boards or (shades of sanitary science!) on a nice, clean-swept spot of ground beside the street! But no matter what shape one chooses, or what the manner of its curing (one can so easily believe that the article of commerce is not produced in this haphazard way!), the maccaroni of Naples is delicious when fresh boiled, served piping hot, a huge plateful—with a thick, strongly flavored tomato sauce to pour over it and a dish of grated Parmesan cheese. It should be eaten at one of the little tables outside the *Ristorante* in the Galleria Umberto Primo, with a band of the street singers for whom Naples is famous (or notorious, as one's ear decrees) performing opposite, singing, quite probably, "La Bella Napoli." The maccaroni will be followed by a *pollo diavolo*—a tiny chicken cooked whole in an earthenware casserole, with onions and all sorts of vegetables and herbs for garnish, especially tiny sweet red peppers. With it is served *finocchio*, stalks of fennel, I believe, not unlike our celery, and if one likes the flavor, exceedingly good, stewed and served with white sauce. Then there would be a sweet, a very light one; perhaps *sbaglione* a rather more substantial form of our egg-nog, in which the egg and milk are slightly cooked, beaten up with the whites and the whipped cream and flavored with Marsala. After this, one is quite inclined, in a full and generous mood to throw a handful of coppers to the singers and the "gamins" waiting round.

As one goes north in Italy, maccaroni is superseded as the staple food by bread made from chestnut flour, or from *polenta*; the latter the English compiler of Baedecker defines as "squashed maize" but will be more easily recognized by Americans as yellow corn meal. Polenta bread is our cornmeal mush, made so stiff that it is quite solid and

may be eaten from the hand. A chunk of this, with a quarter liter of wine and an occasional piece of goat's meat or *salami*—a highly seasoned sausage made of mule's meat—is the universal midday meal of the North Italian workman. If he be more prosperous he may buy his polenta bread fried, as in all the streets of the poorer quarters braziers may be found on which slices of mush are being fried in olive oil; and indeed everywhere are *rotisseri*, "roasteries," where almost any meat may be found fried or broiled (all roasting is done before an open fire), and any portion large or small may be bought and carried home. With what horror did our Italian teacher, a gentlewoman in reduced circumstances, look upon the Man of the Family and the writer, one day, as they were introducing a companion, the dignified wife of an English Colonel, to the delights of fried mush in the street in Florence! Each was eating a piece of sizzling hot mush off a scrap of brown paper in the hand, and the Italian teacher passed as though she had never known them. It must be admitted that it was too much for the Colonel too, who had walked on pretending that he did not belong to the party.

A delicious form of *polenta* is the Florentine *gnocchi* served especially well at the *Tazzo d'Oro*, the "Golden Cup," a dim little *trattoria* on the much frequented Via del Calzaioli, one of those tiny arteries of business life that seem so inadequate to Western eyes. For the *gnocchi*, mush is made of the meal cooked in broth and milk. When cold and firm, it is cut into discs, piled prettily on a baking dish, sprinkled thick on each layer with grated Parmesan cheese, dotted with butter (or oil), moistened with consommé and browned in the oven. Corn meal mush can attain no higher heights! Rice is also beloved of the Northern Italian, but seems exotic even when eaten in the form of *risotto Milanaise* in the shadow of the Cathedral at Milan. The shadow of the cathedral at Orvieto brooded gently over a *ristorante* which offered a most delicious "timbale." Do the cathedrals still dream of the fat abbots who so loved the goodies of life?

Venice called us across the peninsula, Venice and the things of the sea! There we found the Etcher, who showed us the Venice of the Venetians, not of the tourist. Of course an etcher loves shadows, so we saw Venice by night; not the Venetian Nights' Entertainments, with swaying gondolas and swinging lanterns reflected in the black mirror of the Grand Canal, but the Venice of the pedestrian: one can walk in Venice, and the wise do walk, along the *riva* with the black water lapping

a foot or two below; across tiny bridges arched like a bent bow; through narrow *calle* called "streets" where two people pass with difficulty; from *campo* to *campiello*, where the whole neighborhood congregates in the evening and the Etcher found innumerable subjects. Every *campiello* has its *trattoria*, every *campo* its more pretentious *ristorante*, where one may find *fegato Veneziano*, as satisfying as its name, and a *frittura mista*,—"little fried things mixed," a most expressive title! If one is finicky it were better not to look too closely at the fried things. Not being imaginative, under the tutelage of the Etcher we found and enjoyed tiny curled up devil-fish (octopi), sea-urchins, baby artichokes, bits of cauliflower, beans, starfish, scraps of liver—in one brown oil-bath blent. This serves very well as a fish course, and the *fegato Veneziano* may follow. This is simply calf's liver, cooked as follows: about half of a medium-sized onion is cut into very thin slices and fried golden-brown in olive oil; to this a pound of liver cut into small pieces is added with half a pint of soup-stock, and cooked till tender, with a bay-leaf and sprig of parsley for flavoring; then a glass of white wine, salt and pepper, and a teaspoon of arrowroot to thicken (corn-starch works as well but is unknown in Italy) and the whole is served in a border of polenta, rice or maccaroni, boiled and mixed with a few spoonfuls of grated Parmesan.

Cheese is a very constant ingredient of Italian as of French cookery; it not only adds a toothsome flavor but supplies to some extent the lack of meats. One meat that is common in Venice (common in the sense that it is often met by the tourist!) is the pigeon; can it be that one is ofttime regaled on those overfed pets of the *Piazza di San Marco*?

Our route north lay over the Brenner—that historic pass by which the hordes of Attila swept down upon and devastated Italy, and which two armies are now fiercely disputing;—for the greater part of the way there is no railroad, and so we drove in one of those comfortable, roomy "victorias" that are prevalent everywhere in Italy. It was quite late in the season to attempt the Dolomites, and even in the beginning, at Belluno, the tourist hotels were closed for the season.

In Italy, as otherwhere I imagine, when in doubt about accommodations, follow the military, so our "cocchiere" asked where the officers ate, and we drove thither. It was cold and we had driven in a raw and biting wind all the afternoon. A stove or fireplace was not to be hoped

for, but when we insisted on heat, we were conducted to the kitchen, where we comfortably toasted our toes and watched our dinner in the making. The sole fire was on an open hearth, about eighteen inches high, standing quite away from the wall on all sides, while a huge iron hood hung over it conducted the smoke to the chimney. We were offered high chairs, evidently made for the purpose, on which we could sit and put our feet on the hearth.

On one side the hearth was a crane with a huge iron pot of *polenta* already cooked stiff, and lest it burn, constantly stirred by a very red-faced maid on her knees. Opposite was an open sheetiron oven filled with rows of little spitted birds, all broiling in the heat. We knew quite well what they were, we had seen them in all the markets of northern Italy—they were all the song birds that migrate from northern Europe, thrushes, finches, larks, all caught in huge nets and slaughtered to make not a Roman holiday, but an Italian meal! The spits were being carefully turned by a small boy and the *padrona* herself was basting the birds with hot oil from a dish. They looked good—they *were* good—for we fell from our high estate of indignation, and ate the tiny songsters, served very hot on the spits on a bed of *polenta*, crunching their little bones and drinking their little brains just as did the officers we imitated. With them we had a flask of Chianti in its pretty red and green and white straw jacket; then a salad with Gorgonzola *bianca* sweet and new, and though we felt like cannibals, our last *pranzo*, for the time, in Italy, did not entirely lack elements of success.

THE LUX SCHOOL OF INDUSTRIAL TRAINING, SAN FRANCISCO, CALIFORNIA

The Lux School of Industrial Training is a school for girls founded under a bequest contained in the will of Mrs. Miranda W. Lux.

In 1912 the trustees came into possession of the funds with which to carry out the object of the endowment. Actual instruction began in August, 1912. At the same time a tripartite agreement was entered into between the Lux, Lick and Wilmerding Schools whereby Mr. Geo. A. Merrill, Director of the two latter schools, was made Director of the

new Lux School, thereby securing the educational coöperation of the separate endowments. Under this arrangement each school retains its individual identity, having its own buildings, administering its own funds and maintaining a separate staff of instructors.

The Lick School teaches the machinery trades, prepares boys and girls for technical courses in the university, and trains for mechanical careers in general; the Wilmerding School teaches the building trades and architectural drafting and through coöperation with the Lick School also meets the university requirements in architectural engineering; the Lux School has made provision for girls only, and its curriculum is based upon the various household occupations. In this way each endowment specializes along its own lines, although a student enrolled in any one of the three schools is permitted to pursue some of his or her studies in either of the other schools.

While the three schools show a wide differentiation in curricula, the three student bodies are unified through the various social activities of the schools.

The Lux School admits girls who have completed the grammar grades. Its aim is to give them a thoroughly practical training in all the essential things of a well-ordered home, including plain sewing, dressmaking, millinery, cooking, marketing, table setting, housekeeping, bed making, laundering, dyeing, cleaning, sanitation, heating, lighting, ventilating, house decorating, planning and furnishing, home gardening, physical training, health and hygiene, nutrition, dietetics, and home nursing. Such instruction as is given in mathematics, science, drawing, and in the literary branches is made unusually practical and effective by being kept in constant relation with the occupational work of the school.

The problems of food, clothing and shelter are studied in relation to their social, historical and aesthetic backgrounds and thus give liberal culture which is closely interwoven with actual concrete work. Consistent with the plan of instruction is the arrangement and equipment of the rooms to give the atmosphere of a well-ordered home, and constant association with its essentials. A practice bedroom, living room, dining room, and laundry are in daily use in connection with the instruction of the school. Throughout the building home furniture takes the place of the customary school desk.

The subject matter of the Lux curriculum is made into a network by close correlation between the departments of the school. The details of the work are discussed and planned in advance for each quarter of ten

weeks by the teachers in conference. Each teacher shapes her work to include the needs of the other departments. In this way all studies are taught as closely related parts of one subject. By this system of interlocking, the work is so unified that every moment of time and effort of teacher and student is given its utmost value. The girl is thus trained to see nothing in isolation, but everything in relation to allied subjects.

Tuition is free but there is a charge of three dollars per quarter of ten weeks for practice material. Diplomas are given at the end of four years, but the work of the first two years is arranged with special regard for girls who can remain only that length of time. Those who wish to prepare for the university substitute some of the college preparatory subjects of the Lick School for parts of the Lux curriculum. There is also a post-graduate course of two years for those who may wish to become teachers of domestic branches.

THE CONTROL OF FOOD COLORS

A food inspection decision has been issued by the U. S. Department of Agriculture permitting the use of tartrazine in coloring food products. Investigations have shown this color to be harmless and suitable for coloring foods. It is manufactured in large quantities in the United States. Seven other coal-tar dyes have been permitted in foods since the enactment of the food and drugs act. Samples of all dyes certified by the manufacturers are examined in the Bureau of Chemistry and only such dyes permitted as are free from impurities and harmful substances.

Another decision has recently been issued making more stringent requirements in reference to the certification of coal-tar dyes when mixed with substances not coal-tar dyes. This decision provides that hereafter the manufacturer shall deposit with the Secretary of Agriculture a declaration that every package in which any such mixture is sold shall have a plain and conspicuous statement of the quantity or proportion of the certified dyes present in the mixture.

WHAT SHOULD GENERAL CHEMISTRY CONTRIBUTE TO THE HOME ECONOMICS COURSE, SPECIFIC INFORMATION, GENERAL CONCEPTS, OR SCIENTIFIC METHOD?[1]

NELLIE E. GOLDTHWAITE

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A knowledge of chemistry and physics, the two sister sciences, is fundamental to an understanding of any of the other so-called natural sciences; hence, a knowledge of chemistry and physics is fundamental to an understanding of any applied natural science.

A large part of Home Economics is household science, *i.e.*, an application of the natural sciences to the problems of the household. The woman who would manage her household efficiently to-day must know something of the natural sciences she is constantly trying to apply. She may be grateful if her maid possesses mere information; but she herself, the forewoman, will not be content without a knowledge of the why. Granted that in Home Economics the aim is to produce educated women, not merely trained servants, then we must look well to the foundation of pure science on which this educated woman may build. This science foundation is physics and chemistry.

The study of physics should precede chemistry. No one can teach chemistry without promptly discovering that if his students have not studied physics, he must, perforce, teach some physics along with the chemistry; *e.g.*, he must teach physical state, solubility, specific gravity, heat, thermometers, the barometer, Boyles' law, the law of conservation of energy. We may call the subject taught chemistry, but it is physics and chemistry so intimately combined that we cannot separate the two. Each is a study of matter. In the broader sense chemistry is a branch of physics but a branch so large that it rivals the parent stem.

What should the course in general chemistry contribute to the education of the Home Economics student, specific information, general concepts or scientific method? It should contribute all three. If properly taught, chemistry is bound to contribute the first and the last; the last, scientific method, should be developed through the acquisition of the first, specific information; possessed of these two, specific information

[1] Presented at the fifteenth meeting of the Central Association of Science and Mathematics Teachers, Chicago, 1915.

and scientific method, the student necessarily possesses the third, general concepts.

What the student actually will gain from the course in general chemistry will depend very largely on how it is taught. Chemistry should develop primarily the power of close observation, exact thought, and logical reasoning from cause to effect. Acquisition of knowledge in this way means development of the scientific method of study, and hence the development of a scientific attitude of mind. These three, definite information, the scientific method of study, and a scientific attitude of mind, are essential to the mental development of the Home Economics student. Too much of what passes for education in Home Economics is mere information. The person possessing mere information about science, though perhaps very glib and daringly decisive in expressing that information, is quite helpless when confronted by unfamiliar questions; not so the student trained in pure science; trained in reasoning from cause to effect, she may foretell, with considerable assurance, the probable answers to unfamiliar questions.

Through chemistry the student must acquire certain specific information: she must learn primarily the meaning of matter; must learn respect for matter through gradually comprehending one of the great fundamental laws of all matter, the law of the conservation of mass; she must learn what matter is made of, and hence the meaning of element; must learn, through studies of chemical combinations of elements, the meaning of compound and of chemical change; must learn to differentiate between chemical and physical changes, and also between compounds and mechanical mixtures; must learn the meaning of oxidation and reduction; must learn to distinguish between acids, bases, salts; must learn what neutralization is; must learn to classify elements not merely according to their physical nature as gases, liquids, solids, but also according to their chemical nature as acidic or basic; should learn simple qualitative tests for the elements, and for the more important acids and bases.

Through quantitative studies the student must grasp the meaning of the law of definite proportions, and in turn, the law of multiple proportions. By quantitative studies is not meant quantitative analysis, but other types of quantitative experiments, as the synthesis of water by weight, by volume, the oxidation of metals, the reduction of metallic oxides, neutralization experiments, and many others.

It is of primary importance that the Home Economics student should

study in detail at least the twelve elements of which the human body is chiefly composed: oxygen, hydrogen, nitrogen, carbon, sulphur, phosphorus, sodium, potassium, magnesium, calcium, iron, chlorine. In addition to these, fluorine, bromine, iodine, and silicon should be studied, —not necessarily because at least three of them occur in traces in the body, but because their study will make more complete the study of the other twelve.

Obviously, the study of any element includes the laboratory study, not only of that element in the free state, but also of its simple inorganic compounds.

In this connection it is well to note that the laboratory preparation of an element consists in isolating that element, not in making the element. Compounds may be made, but elements, never!

Oxygen is usually the first element studied. This at once leads to a consideration of combustion, and this, to oxidation. If the study of oxygen is followed by that of hydrogen, and this by their compounds water and hydrogen peroxide, excellent opportunities are offered for emphasizing the meaning of matter, element, chemical change, compound, and the laws of definite and multiple proportions.

Directly, the so-called atomic theory should be begun. Extreme care must be taken in developing the atomic theory,—extreme care lest the student confuse theory with fact. A somewhat wide experience seems to demonstrate that in the mind of the ordinary student, fact and theory in chemistry are identical. To avoid this fallacy, the teacher must differentiate very clearly between facts, and the theory elaborated to explain these same facts. A number of similar scientific facts lead to the enunciation of the natural law governing these facts; or in other words, to the discovery of one of nature's laws. A theory, in science, is a sort of mental picture manufactured for the purpose of aiding the mind to understand a group of similar facts and the natural law or laws controlling them. Thus, the atomic theory gives a logical explanation, and enables the mind to form a mental picture of the union of oxygen and hydrogen in the definite proportions of 8 to 1 by weight to form 9 parts of water by weight, and in the definite proportions of 16 to 1 by weight to form hydrogen peroxide.

But the atomic theory fails to explain why oxygen and hydrogen unite by volume in the proportion of 2 to 1 to form 2 volumes of water vapor. The student should learn that this fact, and other similar facts concerning the chemical union of gases, led to the enunciation of Gay-Lussac's

Law of Gaseous Volumes. Whereas the atomic theory fails to make this law clear to the human mind, it is made clear by the development of Avogadro's Hypothesis; this, in turn, is theory, but a theory so well substantiated by facts that it is often spoken of as Avogadro's *Law*.

Naturally in connection with the atomic theory, memorising the atomic weights of the elements should be begun. The theory of valence, which logically follows the development of the atomic theory, is really an extension of the atomic theory, and an extension which leads directly to the chemical equation,—that tangible short-hand expression of all the qualitative and quantitative facts involved in a chemical reaction. Rarely does the ordinary student understand the writing of the chemical equation. It is easily mastered if developed gradually, logically and repeatedly by the teacher. The chemical equation should be no strain on the student's memory; the equation itself should never be memorized, but the facts which it represents should be memorized. The chemical equation is a short-hand concise expression of certain definite facts which should be already fixed in the memory.

Earlier in this paper it was mentioned that the student should learn simple qualitative tests for the more important acids and bases. Obviously, these should be learned in logical connection with the study of the fundamental element from which the acid or base is derived. Whether the study of general chemistry should be complicated, as it often is, by a premature attempt to explain the theory of solutions, is a serious question in the writer's mind. The atomic theory must be taught as a means to an end. If the student grasps this theory with its attending theory of valence, she will have done well. The theory of solutions may well be left to the definite study of qualitative analysis.

In connection with the study of oxygen and hydrogen, oxidation and reduction should be begun; I say, begun, because these processes, like many others in chemistry, are comprehended only by continued repetition and classification of the principles involved, as other illustrations are met with in the progress of the study.

So, as each new element and its compounds are studied in turn, each fact learned must be grouped in the student's mind with similar facts; otherwise, the study of chemistry soon becomes reduced to an attempt to memorize mere isolated facts,—a feat manifestly impossible. Chemistry learned in this way is of no value pedagogically. Such an attempt is futile as a means of grasping even the specific information of the science; still more is it futile as a means of developing the scientific method.

Science is classified knowledge. Only by experiment and by gradual classification of the truths determined, does a science become developed; only through proper classification of the truths involved, does it become possible to comprehend that science. Only by continued repetition of these truths, and a habit of classifying each new truth learned, does that science become a part of the mental equipment.

It is by iteration and re-iteration of the laws of chemistry, as these are illustrated in the progress of the study of the elements and their compounds, that these laws become impressed upon the mind. For example, the law of conservation of mass, and its sister law in physics, the law of conservation of energy, are too deep and far-reaching for the student to grasp their full meaning, except through constant applications to illustrations of the truths which they express. Even so, it often seems that it is only in maturity that the human mind fully grasps the final significance of these two great fundamental laws of the universe.

Finally, the Periodic System of the Elements is a magnificent culmination of the study of the various elements and their compounds. Mendelejeff's arrangement of the elements according to increasing atomic weight, emphasizes the chemical similarities of certain groups of elements which appear at regular intervals in the series. It brings into bold relief the characteristics of the various families of elements, and enables the student to gain some perspective of the elements of which matter is composed. The periodic system is a most fitting and impressive climax to the study of general chemistry.

If there is time, a brief study of the main types of the so-called organic compounds of carbon may well be taken up in the course in general chemistry. Of course, if possible, the student needs a separate course in organic chemistry. In any case, whatever is undertaken in the line of carbon chemistry must be from the standpoint of constitutional formulae as far as these are known; any other study of these organic compounds will soon lead to hopeless confusion. In connection with such study of the types of organic compounds, hydrolysis, and oxidation, and reduction should be especially emphasized; hydrolysis, because it is the fundamental reaction by which the food-stuffs are prepared for absorption into the body; oxidation, because the body returns its foodstuffs to the inorganic kingdom in highly oxidized forms; reduction, because it is by reduction that the vegetable world again transforms these highly oxidized inorganic materials into food-stuffs for the animal economy.

In conclusion, the Home Economics student should gain from the

course in general chemistry certain specific information concerning the elements, at least those of which the human body is composed; but the acquisition of this knowledge should be in every respect upon a thoroughly scientific basis, whereby the facts, laws and theories of chemistry are logically developed, to the end that the student shall become inbued with the scientific method of inquiry and of thought.

THE USE OF THE THERMOMETER IN THE COOKING OF SOFT CUSTARDS

ANNA W. WILLIAMS[1]

University of Illinois

The value of the thermometer in candy making and the difficulties in recognizing the ordinary coating of the spoon test for soft custards led to an attempt to use the thermometer as a means of detecting the stages in custard cookery.

The following methods were used and results obtained.

Custards were made, using 1 whole egg, with 1 tablespoon of sugar, to 1 cup of milk. Cooking was carried on as usual, in a small double boiler, over a low flame, and the mixture stirred slowly, but constantly. Care was necessary, as in candy making, to take exact observations, and to prevent rapid cooking at the critical temperatures.

When the first coating of the spoon appeared, at 80° C., or 176° F., two tablespoons of the custard were removed to a small dish, and at each succeeding ½° in temperature a similar portion was removed. Thus, a complete set of samples was taken up to 85° C., or 185° F. A remarkable series of gradations was thus obtained, from the thin custard of uncooked flavor at 80° C. to the thicker, but smooth, custards with delicate flavor at 82½° C., or 180½° F., and 83° C., or 181⅖° F., and the fine curdle, with a less delicate flavor at 83½° C.. or 182$_{10}^{3}$° F., followed by the increasingly heavier curdle.

Having obtained the optimum temperatures of 82°½ to 83° C., the next question was how to care for the custard so that the cooking would be immediately checked, and the curdled stage prevented. It was found

[1] Assisted by Charlotte Urbain.

that if allowed to stand in the hot pan, even though removed from the water, the cooking continued about the edges sufficiently to cause a slight curdle. Pouring immediately into another dish always prevented the rise in temperature, and a smooth custard was insured. 82½° C. was found to give excellent results and was not so near the danger point as 83° C.; it is therefore, to be recommended.

The next part of the work was to find out the effect of an increased number of eggs and the effect of cornstarch on the visible curdling point. Two eggs to 1 cup of milk were used. Thicker custards were obtained at the same temperatures, the curdle was more evident at 83½° C. However 82½° C. still gave a custard of excellent consistency. When 1 egg and 1 tablespoon of cornstarch were used to 1 cup of milk, the resulting product showed the same range of differences as an ordinary custard, except that the curdle appearing at 83½° C. was only slightly visible because it was held together by the cornstarch.

The last part of the experiment was to find out the comparative curdling temperatures of custards made wholly of egg whites, and custards made of egg yolks. The proportions used were 2 yolks or 2 whites to 1 cup of milk. The same method of cookery, with the removal of samples at different temperatures, was followed as in the work with whole egg custards. The range for coagulation of the egg white was greater, and the curdling temperature lower than for whole eggs or egg yolk. The coagulation began to show at 56° C., and continued very slowly to 80° C., when it began to thicken noticeably. The thickening power increased favorably until 82° C. which showed the best custard of the range. At 82½° C. the custard was slightly thicker, and at 83° C. a curdle appeared. The curdle then continued to increase rapidly. Beating the egg white made the curdle more marked.

The custard made of yolks gave a thin coating on the spoon at 80°C., and at 82° C. the spoon was coated well. From 82° C. the custard increased in thickness and kept smooth until 84½° C. was reached, when a fine grain began to show.

The final conclusions reached from this entire piece of work were:—

The thermometer, carefully used, is an exact test in the cooking of soft custard.

The curdling points for custards are:

Whole egg 83½° C.; white 83° C.; yellow 84½° C.

The optimum temperatures are:

Whole egg 82½° C.; white 82° C.; yellow 83½° C.

THE TRAINING OF HIGH SCHOOL TEACHERS IN AN AGRICULTURAL COLLEGE[1]

G. M. WILSON
Iowa State College

A recent study of agricultural colleges in the middle West makes it evident that such colleges are making a particular effort to train teachers of agriculture, Home Economics and manual training; and that gradually, they are extending their work to the training of teachers of other subjects especially science and mathematics. This paper is confined to the experience of the Iowa State College in training teachers of Home Economics.

There is considerable evidence that most of the 600 women students of the Iowa State College are looking forward to teaching as their mmediate career following graduation. Last year there were 42 women in the senior class in Home Economics. Forty of them were registered with the Appointment Committee for teaching work. This year, there are 72 in the senior class in Home Economics and 62 of them have thus far registered with the Appointment Committee. Further evidence of the interest of the women of the Iowa State College in teaching is furnished by the large extent to which they are electing education courses.

The present courses in domestic science and domestic art require 6 hours work in education, with the course in practice teaching; other work is elective. Yet more than half of the present class will meet the requirements for the first grade state certificate; that is 14 hours in education and 6 hours in psychology. The present junior class is electing education almost unaminously and practically all of next year's seniors will meet the 20 hour requirement. Is should be said in extenuation of the failure of possibly one-third of the senior class to meet this requirement that the work in education was not strongly emphasized until two years ago. At that time, the largest number taking courses in education in one semester was 38. At the present time there are 228. This has been brought about by properly calling the attention of students who plan to enter the teaching profession to the necessity of meeting the requirements of the better high schools and obtaining the first grade certificate.

[1] A paper prepared for the Conference of the Commissioner of Education, Department of Superintendence, National Education Association, Cincinnati, 1915.

If the fact is fairly well established that we are training teachers, it will be worth while to examine the course constituting such training: first, the Home Economics course as a whole; following that, the work in education in particular. The Home Economics courses appearing in the present catalog are a course in domestic science and a course in domestic art. These courses together with the course in science have the following requirements in hours.

Domestic science, 19½ hours

	hours
Cookery	9½
Food and dietetics	6
Home nursing	1
Household management	3½

Domestic art, 22½ hours

	hours
Sewing	4½
Dressmaking	4½
Applied design	4½
The house	4½
History of art	4
Personal hygiene	1

Science, 48½ hours

	hours
Botany	5
Chemistry	21½
Physics	6
General Zoology	4½
Physiology	8½
Bacteriology	3½

In *general culture work*, that is, English, literature, history, language, mathematics, sociology and public speaking a total of 30 hours is required. In psychology and education a total of 9 hours is required. This leaves 8 hours of elective, the total required for graduation being 139 hours.

An examination of the above course shows a thorough scientific basis for the work in domestic science and enough general culture work to give a broad view point. At the present time, the elective opportunities are used chiefly in the field of education in order to meet requirements for certificates. It should be added that the present facilities of the college have not permitted the development of institutional courses; that in time these will be developed and then a greater elective opportunity will be open to the women who look forward to some kind of a career before entering homes of their own.

The faculty of the Home Economics division has been chosen quite largely from Teachers College, Chicago University and sources which have tended to give an educational point of view. This enables the division in all of its work to keep in mind the public school service later rendered by the teaching work of their graduates. The effort is made in all of the work to avoid mere cooking and sewing and to give the student through Home Economics lectures and readings a broad outlook, and to point out the large possibilities for good work in Home Economics; the opportunities for teaching high school girls and future homemakers the larger meaning of scientific living and practical economy in the home; and the necessity of right living.

The Home Economics students who meet the requirements of the department of agricultural education and the State Board with reference to a first grade certificate, take their professional training about as follows: in the sophomore year they take a three hour course in general psychology followed by a three hour course in educational psychology; in the junior year they take a three hour course in methods of teaching, a course dealing with factors in the teaching process, types of lessons, the steps in each type, the assignment, questioning, lesson plans, and similar topics. This course is followed in the same year by a course in the principles of education, a course dealing with aims and educational values and bases of education,—the biological, sociological and psychological in particular. Because it is not provided for definitely in any other place, and because of the discovery of the need for such work by keeping in touch with students who have gone out from the institution, this course in the principles of education has been modified by taking a third of the time for problems of class room and general school management.

The particular work in education for the senior year is a three hour course in special methods and practice teaching running throughout the year. The Ames public schools are available for practice teaching and the work is organized from the fifth grade through the second year high school. Each student teacher has at present a total of 18 lessons under the direct supervision of a competent critic teacher and the director of practice teaching who gives the special methods in this course, frequently visits and observes the teaching work and always follows such visits by a conference with the student for the purpose of discussing the work. The number of lessons is to be extended to 36 as soon as possible. The student's plans are submitted in advance, giving oppor-

tunity for criticism or change. She observes a few classes and gets acquainted with the situation before beginning her own teaching work and if her work does not proceed and develop properly the critic teacher may at any time take charge of the class, teaching for the student, the lesson which she had planned to teach, thus enabling the student to profit by the superior teaching ability of the critic teacher.

The work in special methods, carried on with the practice teaching, reduces and brings into usable form the previous work on lesson planning, assignments, and questioning, but its particular problems are the making, criticizing and execution of 36 lesson plans, and the organization of courses of study, particularly a one-year course of study in Home Economics properly balanced and a four-year course in Home Economics. Each student in the class is required to satisfactorily plan the necessary number of lessons and detailed work for these two courses. There is further work upon equipment and this work is planned in such definite form that the student is prepared to go into a new high school situation, plan out the equipment, order it and supervise its installment. There is further work upon the examination and criticism of texts. This is a line of work which has increased tremendously in the last few years and must continue to increase with the rapid multiplication of common school and high school texts in Home Economics. Because of the fact that the teacher of Home Economics in the high school is frequently called upon for grade work, considerable attention is given to organizing suitable home Economics work in the lower grades and its proper coördination with the other school work. Also because of the increased attention through legislation and otherwise to Home Economics work in the rural schools some special attention is given to the organization of work for the rural schools, to providing equipment at slight expense, and particularly to organizing work around the hot lunch for the children in the rural schools who come long distances and so cannot return home for the noon meal.

The entire work in practice teaching and in special methods is strongly reinforced by the fact that the department has fully under its control the organization of the Home Economics work in the local public schools. Each member of the class in special methods is made familiar with the plan of the work as it is organized; is made to appreciate the problems involved, and the adjustment necessary, and in this way gets a good idea of what it means to go into a system of schools and organize a course in Home Economics. The course in the Ames public schools has been

a growth and has been modified in keeping with new ideas so that it has at all times had the appearance of a live, active, course of study, rather than a dead, predetermined situation to be mastered and imitated.

The course of study as at present organized is about as follows: in the 5th grade, one hour per week is devoted to the early American home. It is closely correlated with the American Pioneer History work outlined for that grade. The Puritan home is studied as to available food, methods of cooking, utensils, etc., including the working out of such projects as the grinding of corn, baking with hot stones, candle making, soap making, and drying apples. It includes a study of the Puritan home as to shelter, means of lighting, clothing, and the processes of washing, combing, dyeing, spinning and weaving. The 5th year work also includes attention to southern homes and further attention to the early Iowa homes. The 6th year work requires one period of one hour per week throughout the year upon sewing. In the 7th year two periods of one hour each per week are required and the work is divided between practical problems in sewing and beginning food work. The historic viewpoint is retained more or less in this grade. In the 8th grade the work in foods is carried for one period per week throughout the year and the effort is made to give a somewhat comprehensive view of this field of study and its possibilities,—the food principles, the effect of applying heat, simple recipes and suggestions for home work. The 8th grade work also involves work in housekeeping one day per week throughout the year and for this work it has been possible to take the girls into actual homes, the groups alternating their work so that in the course of five or six weeks, girls in this class have opportunity to apply their knowledge to different phases of home work.

In the first year high school the work is carried for five double periods per week throughout the year. One period each week throughout the year is devoted to work on the house. This involves such questions as planning the interior, exterior, plans and decorations, selection of the site, structure for warmth and convenience and sanitation; furnishing of the home, pictures, draperies, etc. These problems are worked out, not only through visiting and observation of actual homes including houses under construction but they are also worked out through plans for the modification of the girls' own homes and through further plans for the construction of a home which is conceived more or less ideally. The other work of the year is divided between foods for the first half and clothing for the second half; standard lines of work being observed

and the effort being made at every point to secure practical notions and to develop projects which require the using of the information by students.

In the second year high school one double period per week through the year is devoted to the history of the home. This work is offered first this year with some misgivings but it is thought that it will develop a viewpoint which is thoroughly worth while. The rest of the time is divided between clothing for the first half of the year and food for the second half. The work in foods is deferred for the second half so that the senior students who do the teaching may have the advantage of some work in dietetics, in order to better carry the work planned for the high school. The above brief outline of the work which is actually carried out in the public schools is given in order to give a fuller appreciation of what it means in the training of teachers to have in hand the organization and working out of such courses. The staff are agreed that this is a very significant part of the work in training teachers.

It is with the same thought in mind that *home credit work* in Home Economics has been organized and offered to high school students and that classes for mature women have been conducted in afternoons and evenings in the high school Home Economics laboratories. The home credit work has shown the possibility of tying together the school work and the home duties of the pupils. It is possible for pupils to earn a total of two credits by home work in Home Economics. Two-thirds of a credit may be earned by cooking projects and this is so organized as to require certain undertakings and make others elective, all of the undertakings being such as supply some of the principles of food work developed in the high school classes. This has tended to interest the girls more fully in the home work and thus secure the proper attitude toward home work and the real purpose of high school work in Home Economics. Two-thirds of a credit may be earned by a student in sewing and two-thirds of a credit in general housework. The limit of this paper will scarcely justify entering into the details of these plans. The work has been carried far enough, however, to justify its further extension and to encourage the senior student who will go out as teacher to gradually introduce the home credit work as part of the course in Home Economics.

The work with mature women is designed (from the standpoint of the student) to give more fully the idea of community and public service. As teachers in the public schools,—our critic teachers are really public

school teachers, and our student teachers likewise are public school teachers,—we are interested, not only in the children but in their mothers and in their homes. This gives a larger opportunity for securing interest in public health, proper sanitation, proper selection of food, proper preparation and serving of foods, economy, attention to health through proper ventilation, exercise and recreation, in fact, it gives the opportunity of carrying to the home what Mrs. Richards and others have developed as the Home Economics idea; that is, of making the Home Economics work comprehend the entire sphere of women's activities together with the realization of its possibilities in building better children, better men and women and better communities. In a way, this is undertaking too much for the field of Home Economics but instead of criticizing from this standpoint we rather recommend that in all subjects this same view be secured and that all work be looked upon as an opportunity for service in building up stronger, saner, and more healthful men and women and more sanitary communities. In fact we believe that the time will come when our larger high schools will demand teachers who have this larger public service standpoint and that such teachers will also be selected in subjects other than Home Economics.

TERMINOLOGY AND THE SMITH-HUGHES BILL[1]

HELEN KINNE

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In view of the fact that there is at this writing no accepted terminology in the field of Home Economics with reference to vocational education, it seems necessary to make as definite a statement as possible in regard to several phases of this subject.

The syllabus published by the American Home Economics Association gives a very complete classification of the many subjects included in this field as a whole. In the lower schools we can recognize several groupings or methods of treatment of selected topics dependent upon the aim in a given school.

[1] Presented at a preliminary meeting of the Committee of the N.S.P.I.E. on the Smith-Hughes Bill.

A. The study of certain topics related to the home, and also so closely to the life of each individual that they make for personal efficiency may be part of the general education of any girl, or boy even. This may appear either in the elementary or secondary school. It includes practice in the household arts and a study of related facts and principles. Whether it is called domestic science and domestic art, cooking and sewing, household arts, or domestic economy, the name does not particularly matter, except that a common name would make for a common understanding.

B. A treatment of the subject with a definite aim for the vocation of home-making; that is, the giving of training to the girl which will fit her for the management of a home. One difference between "B" and "A" is that in the case of "B" more time must be given, more phases of the subject covered, and in general the courses of study must be more intensive as well as extensive, this treatment makes the subject vocational, for homemaking is a pursuit or a vocation, and has economic value. It does not bring a wage to the worker, but while the woman at home is usually spoken of as a consumer, she is quite as emphatically a producer in that she produces home conditions either for good or ill. This phase may be given to some extent in either the elementary or secondary field, although, in the nature of things, its more effective development is in the latter.

Illustration of the difference between "A" and "B": An "A" course in foods *need* include nothing more for the girl than the study of nutritive values and methods of preparation. The "B" course in foods *must* include all the practical knowledge necessary for the housekeeper—food production, sanitation and cost, how to market, how to care for food in the home, nutritive values and menus, serving, and disposal of waste.

C. Here certain phases of Home Economics are given with the avowed purpose of wage earning. The vocation might be that of a dressmaker, costume designer, milliner, shopper, dietitian, tea room manager, lunchroom manager, assistant to any of these just mentioned, mother's helper or nurse maid, a general household worker or visiting aid. Still others are catering, the management of social affairs for the housekeeper, the selling of cooked foods. Some of the occupations are suitable for a girl of eighteen under proper conditions, and others are not. With any of them there must be knowledge of business methods, trade methods, and market conditions, with skill in the industry selected.

How much work of this type can be given to girls of secondary age it is impossible now to predict. The work selected for a given school must always depend upon the possibility of obtaining work after the training, and this varies in different communities. For example, in Cincinnati, girls trained in the high school do some of their field work while in the school by going out as seamstresses in the making of clothing for babies and children. In another community it might be possible for girls to assist in housework, but wherever this is tried it is found necessary to guard the girls most carefully. One student at Teachers College reported that in her own home town in a Western State, several high school girls taking domestic science helped in families.

One difficulty in this situation is the fact that in most schools "A" and "B" shade into each other, and that along with "A" and "B" there may be a little of "C." Nevertheless, these three methods of treatment are distinct from each other, or *may be made so*. It is perhaps unfortunate to call "A" "household arts." I can see that a course might be planned to be called a "personal efficiency course," the first part being taken by boys and girls together, to be differentiated later. Miss Alice Ravenhill, formerly of England, now living in British Columbia, called the "A" phase "hygiene," but this of course does not include the economic phase, which would be part of a personal efficiency course.

Now for my understanding of the point of view of the members of the Commission on Vocational Education: They intend the Smith-Hughes Bill to provide for the training of teachers for the "B" and "C" phases, but not for the "A," expecting the State to train its teachers for the "A" type.

A RESOLUTION PASSED FEBRUARY 25, 1916

The American Home Economics Association assembled in Detroit reaffirms its approval of Federal aid to vocational education as provided for by the Smith-Hughes Bill recommended by the President's Commission on National Aid to Vocational Education and now before Congress. The Association believes, however, that the ends to be served are so important and so diversified as to require a Federal Board, the members of which shall give their undivided attention to the administration of the act and shall be representative on the interests to be served.

STUDENTS' CONTRIBUTIONS

PASTRY

Miss Emma L. Taylor, Montana State College, '15, endeavored to determine the difference between plain paste made with cold water and that made with warm water. The question had arisen in another college. One student volunteered the statement that her mother always made excellent pastry with warm water.

In following out the problem weighed amounts of dry ingredients and a measured quantity of water were used. Thus the two crusts were identical in every way excepting in the temperature of the water used. With water at 35°C. or 97° F., or above, the pastry had a mealy feel in the mouth as compared to the paste made with cold water at 15°C. or 59° F. This was invariably the result in every experiment. The mealy feel was not undesirable, nor particularly noticeable, excepting when carefully compared with the cold water paste.

During the first part of the experiment it was found that the warm water paste was more tough and less flaky than the cold water paste. As more skill was gained in manipulation, this difference gradually disappeared. The two pastes were equally tender and flaky.

The conclusions drawn from the work are:

1. Good pastry may be made with warm water.
2. Warm water gives a paste with a mealy feel.
3. More time is required for manipulation when warm water is used.
4. More flour is required on the board when warm water is used.
5. When exposed to the atmosphere at room temperature the warm water paste absorbs moisture more readily than does cold water paste.
6. Cold water is more desirable than warm water for pastry.

THE COLLEGE GIRL'S WARDROBE

Miss Mae Myers, Montana State College, '15, worked out the following data on the minimum cost of a college girl's wardrobe for one year. All garments where the amount of material is listed are to be made at home. The prices, as listed, represent the prevailing prices during 1914–15, at Bozeman, Montana. They are representative of prices in this section of the West.

Girl's minimum wardrobe for one college year. All clothing made at home

NUMBER	ARTICLE	MATERIAL	YARDS	COST PER ARTICLE	YEARS TO WEAR	APPROXIMATE YEARLY COST
6	Undervests	Cotton gauze		$0.08⅓	1	$0.50
2	Corsets	Cotton		1.25	1	2.50
4	Drawers (knit)	Cotton		0.25	2	0.50
3	Union suits	Heavy cotton		1.00	2	1.50
4	Corset covers	Cambric	1½	0.20	1	0.80
2	Petticoats	Gingham	2½	0.45	2	0.45
1	Petticoat	Sateen		0.39	1	0.39
1	Petticoat	Muslin		0.50	1	0.50
1	Petticoat	Muslin		0.75	2	0.38
2	Nightgowns	Muslin		0.49	1	0.98
2	Nightgowns	Outing		0.80	2	0.80
6 pr.	Hosiery	Cotton		0.25	1	1.50
1 pr.	Hosiery	Silk (Phoenix)		0.75	1	0.75
1	Kimona	Cotton crepe	4¾	0.80	2	0.40
1 pr.	Slippers	Felt		0.75	2	0.38
2 pr.	Shoes			3.50	1½	6.00
1 pr.	Shoes	Tennis		0.75	3	0.25
1 pr.	Slippers	Dancing		3.00	2	1.50
1 pr.	Low shoes			2.50	1	2.50
1 pr.	Rubbers			0.85	1	0.85
1	Skirt	Wool		8.00	3	2.67
1	Coat (winter)	Wool		30.00	3	10.00
1	Coat (light)	Wool		18.00	4	4.50
1	Coat (rain)			5.00	2	2.50
1	Sweater	Wool		5.00	4	1.25
2	Waists	Lingerie	4	0.75	1	1.50
2	Waists	Wool	4	1.50	3	1.00
1	Waist	Silk	3	3.50	2	1.75
1	Dress (blue)	Serge	4	6.00	3	2.00
1	Skirt (white)	Duck	3	0.75	2	0.38
1	Middy (white)	Duck		1.25	2	0.63
1	Dress (white)	Voile	5¾	2.25	2	1.13
1	Dress (light)	Lawn	6	1.50	2	0.75
1	Dress (party)	Light silk	6	4.00	2	2.00
1	Hat (winter and fall)			6.00	2	3.00
1	Hat (spring)			5.00	2	2.50
1	Cap (winter)			0.65	3	0.22
1	Cap (rain)			0.65	3	0.22
1 pr.	Heavy gloves	Kid		1.25	1½	1.00
1 pr.	Long gloves	Silk		1.50	2	0.75
1 pr.	Short gloves	Cotton chamois		0.75	2	0.38
1	Muff	Plush		5.00	4	1.25
1	Riding Skirt	Khaki	8	2.25	2	1.13
	Accessories					
24	Handkerchiefs			0.05	1	2.00
	Pins, Belts, Ribbons,	etc.				3.00
Total					1	$70.44

FOR THE HOMEMAKER

THE WOMAN OF TODAY

It is my opinion that no eighteenth century critic could emphasize more strongly the value of good housekeeping than does the woman of today, but this woman of today finds that she is needed in civic housekeeping, in national housekeeping.

The home is hers to rule and save by wisdom and grace, but the solidarity of life makes it necessary for her to save other homes with hers. Her care for her own children widens out with true knowledge of conditions and leads her into the care of all children.

Our ideal woman of today has the house-motherly instinct of the past, trained and disciplined, broadened in scope, deepened in power, penetrated with an even more enduring and subtle charm, and she brings this, not in a strident demand for rights, but as her contribution to the upbuilding of the nation's life.

MYRA REYNOLDS,
University of Chicago.

NOVELTY VERSUS QUALITY

CHARLOTTE GIBBS BAKER

With the revolutionary changes which have come about in the manufacture of materials there has come a change in the standards set by women buyers. When silks sold for much higher prices a silk dress was supposed to last for many seasons, often many years. It was not an uncommon thing in the early days of this country to bequeath a dress, just as one did a teaspoon or other valued possession; the heir perhaps prized the dress more than the spoon. Linens, spun and woven by hand, likewise were handed on from mother to daughter, as were the lovely soft homespun blankets and the much prized coverlets.

The days of hand spinning and weaving are past; silks, in fact all materials, have by modern processes been reduced in price and often at

the same time in quality. Few of our dresses would last to hand on to the next generation if we tried to keep them, and from a hygienic standpoint perhaps it is just as well that they will not. There are more fabrics on the market now from which to choose our wardrobes, and the prices of these permit a new gown more often than of old. New conditions have been created; we must not sigh for the old but study the new.

It is a well recognized fact that, in one way at least, women have met the new conditions, since they are quite willing to buy quantities of materials. When fashion says the old dress will no longer do, women willingly follow her dictates. Because it is well known that fashion will not be slow in dictating a change, women have come to be content with materials which they know will not wear long. The demand for variety requires new materials as well as new styles in dress.

The manufacturer, far from discouraging this demand on the part of women, does all he can to encourage it. Each season brings its quota of new names, new weaves, new finishes, new colors, new designs, new combinations of materials. Sometimes the name is attached to a very slight modification of a well known fabric; sometimes it represents an entirely new product of the designer's imagination. Often the new fabric is excellent, and finds its place among the standard materials which have stood the test of time. Sometimes, having no real merit, it is soon lost in oblivion.

A new fabric entails some risk upon the manufacturer, though he does not produce one until assured by the dictators of fashion that it will be encouraged, and his output is gauged by the advance orders of the buyers. A new material often means new machinery, perhaps new processes to be taught to the workmen, and different raw materials. The continued success of a novelty may be doubtful, and so the profit must come while the sale is good. The wholesale and the retail merchant also run some risk with the new material, and the first price must be sufficiently high to insure against loss if it does not continue to sell well. When a fabric has real merit aside from the fact that it is a novelty, the risk is less.

These conditions, together with the fact that women will pay well for a new thing, tend to make the prices high when a fabric first appears on the counters. This price is not necessarily proportionate to the quality of the material, its composition, or its wearing quality. Often a novelty sells for as much as, or more than, a standard material superior

in every way. Later in the season when it is no longer a novelty the fabric may appear on the bargain counter much reduced in price. Of course standard fabrics are also marked down at certain seasons, but the reduction is usually not so great.

It may be well to explain that "standard" fabrics mean those materials familiar to all buyers of clothing and house furnishings, which vary little from year to year, in which a certain price means a certain grade of fabric, and which may be found from season to season. Among these may be mentioned broadcloth, serge, velvet, satin, linen huck, crash, cambric, longcloth, gingham, and many others. These materials in some details vary from year to year yet keep their general characteristics, so that one is able to recognize an old friend. Compare with these a swiss, its design of paste only printed on; an attractive enough material at first sight but very disappointing when the dots come off in washing, or turn brown under the iron. This material, now no longer on the market, was certainly a novelty and a striking example of the extravagance of novelties.

Another novelty poor in value was a silk and cotton, largely cotton, imitation crepe de chine which came out last spring. The material was printed in colors following the vogue for figured crepe de chine. The general effect was very good and the material attractive and worth buying for a reasonable price. The early spring cost of the fabric was 98 cents, the price of a very fair grade of all silk crepe de chine, though at that time the figured ones cost more. A few weeks later, even before warm weather came, the cheaper fabric appeared in the windows for 67 cents a yard, a price much more commensurate with its value.

Frequently the poor grade novelty is an imitation of the higher priced and at the same time good quality novelty. In either case the price is usually high for the product obtained, but the wearing quality of the better grade is often proportionate to its greater cost. Novelties are perhaps most disappointing in wash materials, as the colors are likely to be fleeting, the fabric may not hold its shape, or may muss badly, or be otherwise unsatisfactory. Actual wearing quality is of course not the only requisite for a satisfactory fabric; it is quite as necessary that it retain its appearance. A material which depends for its appearance more upon the finish than upon the quality of the thread, weave, and dye, is likely to become shabby from wear.

The woman who would dress herself and family economically needs to consider carefully whether she will be tempted by things which have

not been tried out. More than one woman has remarked that she makes up her mind to try a novelty just about the time it goes out. This means that there are many styles she never tries. Is it a coincidence that it is usually a well dressed woman who makes this remark? It is the extreme which she avoids, but when a thing has been well tried she adopts it. Unless one has time and money to spend freely it is always safer to wait until the novelty is found to be meritorious and becomes a standard material worth purchasing.

The increase in the use of ready made garments has had its influence on the change of standards in fabrics. When one spends hours of hard work making a garment, or when one pays a good price to a dressmaker or tailor it seems worth while to buy a good material and to expect good wearing quality. When, on the other hand, one walks into a store and puts on a ready-made garment, at a price which seems remarkably low, it is not so surprising that the question of the quality is often neglected. The styles in ready made clothes are often extreme, and the workmanship not always of the best, and so it sometimes seems unnecessary to expect material that will wear long.

Such are some of the conditions as we find them today. They must be faced by every woman who buys and she must determine how it is best for her to buy. Shall she get good material, avoiding the extreme fad, and making quality her standard, or shall she buy the thing of the hour, economizing if she must on quality and discarding the garment more quickly? The answer to this will depend largely on one's standard of good dressing, though other factors will also influence it. The question of one's personality and one's needs must enter in, the consideration of the market in which one buys, one's skill in buying, and again the question of the expense of making the garment. Sometimes one must have a certain type of dress, as an evening dress, for a few occasions when the wear is not great; in such a case a good effect may be obtained for a moderate expense. On the other hand a street dress must stand the weather and hard wear, and so in this there is greater need for good material.

There are many very beautiful materials on the market today; if we could have a longer period for wearing our dresses more of us could afford these luxurious fabrics. Too often we have made quantity the standard, and as a result the quality has suffered.

In house furnishings there has been less tendency toward novelties, but judging from the exhibits of the last year, even here we are pressed

to follow fashion. It is to the interest of the manufacturer and of the interior decorator that we have changing styles in our houses, and if we allow they will so dictate.

Women who are making serious study of the problems of house management, and the wise spending of the family income, need to consider well this question of standards, to balance carefully the value obtained and the money spent, and to know upon what properties they wish to place the emphasis.

RENNET CUSTARD—THE DISH THAT MAKES ITSELF

ELIZABETH DUBOIS BACHE

Secretary Washington, D. C., Home Economics Association

Rennet custard is a simple, dainty dessert, economical, nutritious and easily prepared. The custard is readily digested and so is especially fitted to the diet of those of weak digestion. It is made by the addition of a little junket or rennet to lukewarm, sweetened milk. It cannot be made with evaporated, dried, sterilized or malted milk, but can be made with either pasteurized or fresh milk.

The tablets are prepared from the calf's stomach and contain the digestive enzyme rennin which coagulates the curd of milk, a process similar to that taking place in the digestion of milk in the human stomach.

Until recently, most housekeepers have known little about the temperature that is necessary for making rennet custard and have guessed at the time with correspondingly varying results. In answer to inquiries among housewives, it is found that many do not know what rennet is and others have termed it "risky" to make. This is not so, if the general principles are understood.

The following table gives some general conclusions, formulated by many experiments.

Aim: (1) To determine the temperature and time limits for favorable action of rennet in making rennet custard. (2) To ascertain the effect on the action, (a) of increasing the amount used, (b) of putting in different shaped dishes. (3) To compare the action of the fresh with the stale tablet.

Limits for good action: Temperature—80° F. to 120° F. Time—4 minutes to 1 hour.

Recipe used as basis: 1 cupful of milk (pasteurized); 2 tablespoonfuls of sugar; ½ rennet tablet (or 1 teaspoonful pepsin); 1 teaspoonful of cold water.

Comparison of temperatures and time

KIND	TEMPERATURE	TIME	GENERAL CONCLUSIONS
Hansen's, one-fourth tablet		8 min.	This takes the same length of time to form in any deep dish, whether a bowl or custard cup. It takes longer in a shallow dish as it cools quickly.
Hansen's one-half tablet		4 min.	Doubling the amount of rennet used lessens the time, but makes a firmer, less delicate custard.
Hansen's fresh from laboratory		8 min.	Action of the tablet fresh from the laboratory is not any quicker than the store tablets.
	98° F.		
Wyeth's one-fourth tablet		30 min.	This makes a custard of softer consistency, taking a longer time.
Wyeth's, one-half tablet		12 to 15 min.	Doubling the amount of this rennet lessens the time but does not seem to affect consistency.
Wyeth's fresh from laboratory		30 min.	Same as in case of Hansen's.
Wyeth's liquid rennet		6 min.	Liquid rennet acts a little more quickly than the tablets.
Fairchild's liquid pepsin		4 min.	
	95° F.	14 min.	The length of time gradually increases with the decrease in temperature.
	90° F.	14 min.	
	80° F.	60 min.	
	40° F.		There is no action. Action begins again when placed in a warm room, as the enzyme is not killed.
	110° F.	10 min.	As the temperature increases the action is gradually slower.
Hansen's, one-fourth tablet	115° F.	10 min.	
	120° F.	12 min.	About the highest temperature at which the action of the rennet is sure.
	130° F.	14 min.	This custard is of a soft consistency.
	140° F.	2 hrs.	
	150° F.	Several hours	This custard is very soft and the action is uncertain.

SOME SUGGESTIONS FOR FLY CONTROL IN THE HOME

The great importance of beginning early in the spring to apply measures for reducing the number of flies in the home is evident when one remembers the rapidity with which the house fly breeds. The female lays about 120 eggs at one time and in fairly warm climates from ten to twelve generations of flies may be produced during one season. Every fly killed during the spring is worth hundreds killed later, since the progeny of one pair of flies surviving the winter may number several million by fall. Such measures as screening and swatting and the use of sticky fly papers, poisons, and fly traps are well known and prove effective in reducing the number of flies in the home, but it has been shown conclusively within the past few years that the most effective means of controlling flies is to prevent their breeding by eliminating the breeding places. From early spring until late fall every housekeeper should make great efforts to prevent the breeding of flies about her home and grounds. In many cities and towns this matter is looked after as far as possible by the local health officers but the housekeeper can and should coöperate with them in looking after her own premises and in calling to the attention of the authorities any serious neglect of duty on the part of neighbors, for the good resulting from the efforts of one person may be undone by the presence of fly breeding nuisances in the neighborhood.

The chief breeding places of the house fly are in manure, especially horse manure, in which the females lay their eggs by preference, apparently, and in other forms of decaying organic matter. The larva or maggot which issues from the egg develops, within a few days, into the pupa, previous to which the maggot migrates to the edge of the manure pile or burrows into the ground. The adult fly emerges from the pupa in from eight to twelve days after the eggs are laid.

To prevent fly breeding in stables, they must be kept clean and free from manure, damp straw and other decaying organic material. The floors should be tight so that the larvae cannot burrow into the ground, there to develop into flies. The manure should be kept in a fly-proof bin and tightly covered; in towns and cities it should be removed at least twice a week during the summer and once a week during the winter. Many cities and towns have ordinances which require that stables and manure shall be so kept that they will not be nuisances. With proper care and coöperation with the authorities on the part of

stable owners, it should be possible to reduce greatly the number of flies in cities. In the country the prevention of fly breeding is more difficult, since, as a rule, the manure must be kept on the place and used as fertilizer. There are, however, two practical methods of handling manure which do not injure its fertilizing value and which at the same time keep it from becoming a place for fly breeding.

One method is the use of a maggot trap. In this, the manure is placed on a slatted platform which stands on the floor of a concrete basin containing about one inch of water. The manure is kept moist either with water or liquid wastes from the stable and under these conditions the maggots in migrating to find a place to pupate fall into the water and are drowned. Experiments have shown that this device destroys about 99 per cent of all the maggots in the manure. The construction and operation of this maggot trap is described in detail in a bulletin of the Department of Agriculture.[1] A similar form of trap has been devised by the Richmond (Va.), Health Department. This consists of a barrel with holes bored in the bottom or fitted with a bottom of stout wire netting; the barrel is placed on bricks in a tub containing a few inches of water.

Another method is to treat the manure with chemicals. Experiments carried out in the Department of Agriculture have shown that a solution of one-half pound of hellebore in 10 gallons of water applied to 8 bushels of manure will kill from 85 to 98 per cent of the maggots breeding in manure and has no deleterious effects on the manure itself. A solution of one pound of powdered borax in 12 gallons of water and applied to every 12 bushels of manure will kill from 90 to 99 per cent of the maggots. This is less satisfactory in some ways than hellebore. Borax is also effective in treatment of stable floors and similar places to prevent fly breeding.

Since flies breed in other kinds of manure than horse manure and in such material as garbage, rotting vegetables, or any decaying organic matter, which is undergoing fermentation, all such material should be destroyed or so treated as to prevent the breeding of flies. Yards should be kept clean; garbage should be stored in tightly covered cans and the contents of privies should be treated with borax and also tightly screened. By such methods, the breeding of flies is prevented and the number will be further reduced through starvation.

[1] U. S. Dept. Agr. Bul. 200 (1915), pp. 15.

In addition to the prevention of fly breeding, efforts must also be made to keep flies from the house. All windows should be tightly screened, preferably with wire netting covering the whole opening, but even cloth netting tacked over the windows will do if no better substitute can be had. Outside doorways should have tightly fitting screen doors, opening outward with self-closing devices if necessary. Flies gaining access to the house should be killed by "swatting" or other measures. The use of fly paper is effective for this purpose. Commercial paper can be bought or a home-made substitute can be prepared by heating, until dissolved, 2 pounds of rosin in a pint of castor oil and then applying it to sheets of paper with a brush. Fly poisons are also effective. A solution of one teaspoonful of commercial formalin (40 per cent strength) in one cup of milk or water may be exposed in shallow dishes; preferably no other liquid should be accessible to the flies. This solution is not poisonous to man and is safer than fly poisons containing arsenic; it should, however, be put out of the reach of children. Pyrethum powder may be burned in the rooms to kill the flies. Insect powder blown into the air is said to stun flies so that they may be swept up and then destroyed. Fly traps are also effective especially around kitchen doors and near stables, outhouses, etc. There are a number of traps on the market which are said to be very satisfactory.

The danger of the housefly as a carrier of disease is too well known to need emphasis on the importance of fly preventive measures in conserving health. By effectively applying the methods described above it should be possible to reduce greatly the number of flies around any home even though they cannot be eliminated entirely.

THE COUNTY AGENT AND THE HOME

Every one is beginning to realize that the great education movement that is fostered by government and state aid and of which county agent activities are a part, is of the greatest advantage to the home. Requests for aid in studying and solving home problems are beginning to receive as general a response as is given to the problems of the farm.

The Department of Agriculture has lately in a circular of information told us that nearly 400 women county agents are now at work in

the 15 Southern States. These agents assist the farm women in their territory in much the same way that their men colleagues assist the farmers.

At first these women devoted themselves largely to the formation and supervision of canning clubs. Now, however, much of their time is spent in home demonstration work with the mothers as well as with the girls. The opportunities that this field offers are illustrated by the recent meetings of a Virginia home demonstration club. The club was organized in June, with 12 members, which grew almost at once to a membership of 25. So many applications for membership came in that it has been necessary to form other clubs so that each organization may not be too large to do efficient work.

The construction of a homemade fireless cooker at a cost of 25 cents, with its saving of labor, time, and fuel, suggested other devices that were worked out by the women themselves.

Among these were the "scrubbing chariot," consisting of a comfortable padded frame mounted on four flat rollers, and enabling the housewife to save many steps in wiping and scrubbing floors and cleaning woodwork. It was made at a cost of 47 cents.

A companion convenience to the fireless cooker was the milk cooler or iceless refrigerator, which was constructed in general in accordance with the directions furnished by the department. The homemade shower bath, the roller tray wagon for use in carrying dishes from the kitchen to the dining table, and a folding ironing board and cover were among the other improvements suggested or developed.

The interest taken by the women in this kind of work is indicated by the fact that the county agents have now enrolled approximately 6000 farm women as home demonstrators. These demonstrators agree to adopt some household improvement and to furnish in this way an object lesson to their neighbors, or they agree to carry on certain demonstrations under the supervision of the county agents. Some very successful demonstrations have been made in cooking, in improving sanitary conditions, in winter gardening, in poultry work, and in home dairying. In addition, they agree to report to the county agents at the end of the year the results which they have obtained.

These practical object lessons are most efficient ways of arousing interest and carrying conviction. A Georgia woman, for example, who had been shown the use of the milk separator, and better methods of butter making, wrote recently that some of her neighbors came for

miles to see her churn. The fact, she said, that she was getting 30 cents a pound for her butter instead of 20 cents had done a great deal in making her neighbors want to learn to make better butter. The use of the thermometer, in particular, attracted their attention. Before seeing it in operation they had not considered the importance of having the cream at the right temperature. Incidentally, this woman wrote that her husband was taking much interest in the work and was planning how to fix the barn and feed room in order to aid his wife in her butter making.

This work has been in existence for about five years. It began with the organization of girls' canning clubs in two states in 1910. These girls' clubs, however, while important in themselves, were from another standpoint regarded as a stepping stone to further home demonstration work for the farm women. At the beginning of the movement one of the founders wrote:

> The direct object is to teach some one simple straightforward lesson to the girls on the farm which will open the way to their confidence and that of their mothers, and which will, at the same time, open their eyes to the possibilities of adding to the family income through simple work in and about the home.

THE RIPENING OF CREAM

By the ripening of cream is meant the changes it undergoes from the time of separation until it is added to the churn. Upon these changes depends very largely the quality of butter as regards texture and flavor. The temperature at which cream is held determines the firmness or texture, while the flavor is dependent upon the by-products from the bacterial growth.

The purpose of ripening cream is fundamentally that of giving the butter the desired flavor and aroma, but in addition it increases the ease and efficiency of churning. Cream is ripened in one of two ways:

First, it sours or ripens as a result of the action of bacteria which are normally present in milk and cream; or, second, it ripens as a result of action of certain kinds of bacteria which are added in what is termed a "starter."

HOUSEHOLD MEASUREMENTS

The United States Government does not overlook the homemaker and her problems. We need sometimes to recall the varied work of the Department of Agriculture for the improvement and regulation of our food supply as well as the specific studies in its Office of Home Economics of the use in the home of agricultural products for food, clothing, and household equipment. The Department of the Interior through its Bureau of Education, and the Treasury Department through its Public Health Service are studying questions and sending out literature on subjects that concern the home. The Children's Bureau of the Department of Labor, has made itself widely known by its extended work for the welfare and the care and management of the child.

The introduction of new foods, the devising of methods for utilization of food that now goes to waste, and the issuing of bulletins also form part of the activities of the Department of Commerce.

One of the most helpful of these bulletins is the circular of the Bureau of Standards called "Measurements for the Household" that may be obtained from the Superintendent of Documents for 45 cents. This was issued August, 1915, and a revised edition is already in preparation. The Bureau offers to answer any questions on the subject of the circular and welcomes any suggestions for the new edition. Some of the topics included are the measurement of commodities; heat and its measure; electricity and gas with a description of the meters; some of the apparatus less often used in the household such as hydrometers; and many instructions for better use of these measuring appliances, with further information that will help in administering a household. The practical suggestions vary from the setting and regulating a clock, the determining the coldest place in the refrigerator, and the various uses of different kinds of thermometers, the purchase not only of food, but of coal and other fuels, to a description of deceptive methods of unscrupulous dealers and ways to control them.

One chapter discusses kitchen measures and standardizes them, giving at the same time the various measures of capacity, including the metric system.

The comparison of household processes with those of modern industry is made with this statement: "Modern industry owes its efficiency largely to careful measurements which control processes or fix the dimensions, proportions and properties of products. Measurement guides the processes of all industries and keeps their output up to certain standards."

EDITORIAL

Some Guides for Feminine Energy. A notable address was delivered by Dean Gildersleeve of Barnard[1] before the New York Delta of the Phi Beta Kappa Society, on the twenty-fifth anniversary of the founding of Barnard College. Like that delivered by Miss Lathrop at the recent semi-centennial at Vassar, this offers hope that order may soon appear out of the chaos of recent ideas regarding women and their place in present day society. Miss Gildersleeve traces the changes which have gradually been releasing a large store of women's energy from the tasks of homemaking and points out that this surplus energy must find some useful and honorable means of expression. It is because of the lack of such outlet that so much feminine energy has lately been running to waste in restless and somewhat misdirected activities.

Such recent organizations as the Intercollegiate Bureau of Occupations and the League for Business Opportunities for Women represent concerted effort to study the conditions in occupations suitable for trained women, and to guide those seeking employment into positions which will bring to the community the full value of each worker's training and ability. In the belief of the speaker much of this newly released energy will go into newly developed occupations, especially those which, in a large sense, call for the "instinct for preserving life," social service, homemaking on a public scale, legal work in connection with social betterment movements, and others. Soon, too, we may hope that means will be found not only for utilizing the energy of the woman who does not marry, but also for giving society the benefit of married women during the years when their children do not need their entire attention. As Dean Gildersleeve says in closing, the wonder is not that the "new woman" should occasionally appear "an intruding, abnormal, vociferous and rather dangerous creature," but rather that we are so rapidly succeeding in directing her energies into helpful and honorable fields, and in working out "amid new and rather perplexing conditions, a situation in which happiness may best prosper, and the old kindly human affections find full and free play."

[1] Some Guides for Feminine Energy. Virginia C. Gildersleeve, *Columbia University Quarterly*, 17 (1915), no. 4, pp. 363–375.

Some Comments on the "Woman's Movement." In a similar way Mr. Walter Lippman in his "Drift and Mastery" calls attention in his chapter on The Woman's Movement, to the fact of "the absolute necessity for a readjusting of woman's position." He says "Housekeeping and baby-rearing are the two most primitive arts in the whole world. They are almost the last occupations in which rule of thumb and old wives' tales have resisted the application of scientific method. They are so immemorially backward, that nine people out of ten hardly conceive the possibility of improving upon them. They are so backward that we have developed a maudlin sentimentality about them, have associated family life and the joy in childhood with all the stupidity and wasted labor of the inefficient home."

He questions whether in the readjustment women should be urged to go into industry as it exists today believing that "the army of women in industry is not a blessing, but the curse of a badly organized society," and that "for the great mass, women's work in the future will be in the application of the arts and sciences to a deepened and more extensively organized home."

He explains that this does not mean a narrowing of her opportunities or even that women need not concern themselves with industry; it means that they must develop an intelligent consumer's control, that they must get into politics, since the home in a hundred ways touches upon all its ramifications. They must deal with the school and with education in all its phases.

It also means coöperative organization, division of labor and specialization in the home.

He says, "To be paid for work in money is possible only when you don't do all the work. So the moment you divide the work the only way you can share the product is by paying money to each other. A woman who does her own cooking gets no pay. A woman who does someone else's cooking gets pay. And when women introduce into the work of the home the principle of division of labor and coöperative organization, they also will receive pay, and what is called 'economic independence' will be open to them."

He adds, "It is curious how little faith conservatives have in the institution of the family. They will tell you how deep it is in the needs of mankind, and they will turn around and act as if the home were so fragile that collapse would follow the first whiff of criticism."

"We do almost no single, sensible, and deliberate thing to make

family life a success. And still the family survives. It has survived all manner of stupidity. It will survive the application of intelligence."

However we may disagree with Mr. Lippman, particularly in regard to his attitude toward women in industry, we shall all be willing to acknowledge that we are still "in medias res," and that our traditions are failing to guide us out of the maze in which we find ourselves.

We need creative thinkers. We need open minds. We need courage —and we need most of all an atmosphere in the home that shall imbue the child with true democracy.

To this readjustment of woman and the home to modern conditions the American Home Economics Association should contribute something more than indefinite suggestions.

It should give the concrete help of proved methods; it should venture to formulate new traditions; it should blaze the trail toward a new understanding and a new outlook.

We have followed long enough. Let us lead.

COMMENT AND DISCUSSION

COOKERY UNIFORMS IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

To extend into the realm of schools lower than college and normal, your recent discussion of uniforms in the cookery laboratory, it will be interesting to know how Dartmouth, Mass., handled her problem.

Believing that a uniform is an absolute necessity in a cookery laboratory, first, because it is a sanitary covering over a possibly undesirable dress; second, because the general appearance of a class is much more workmanlike and therefore grading more equably determined, we started making equipment in the sewing classes in Grade V in the following order: hand towel, holder, circular cap and high-neck, long-sleeve apron.

We used for the apron and holder a ladies' cloth at twelve cents per yard which has a desirable firmness yet not undue weight. For the towels we were able to get remnants of Russia crash at eight cents per yard, and for the caps dotted muslin at twelve cents was dainty and effective. Each girl paid fifty cents for material and successfully accomplished the making of these articles with the previous year's experience in

Grade IV work, so that on entering the sixth grade cookery course she was neatly equipped and in readiness for work.

Seven minutes is sufficient time for the pupils to remove their wraps, don their uniforms conveyed in small suitcases, and appear in the laboratory, ready to pass in review on their way to the hand-bowls. The teacher inspects the appearance and detects any apron not freshly laundered, any holder or towel missing or a loop from either, a button gone, a stray lock escaping from beneath the cap, or carelessly groomed hands.

It will be seen from the requirements that the uniform is to be freshly laundered after each lesson of two hours and a half once in two weeks, and that caps are worn to cover all the hair that if braided may be coiled about the head before the cap is put on.

At the beginning of the second year the course was extended through grades seven to nine. The cap of the first year high school girls, to distinguish them from the elementary grades, was a simple Dutch cap, capable of being drawn closely around the face.

The simplicity, yet effectiveness of the uniform commends it.

ALICE HOWLAND MACOMBER,
Supervisor Domestic Science, Dartmouth, Mass.

For lack of space we cannot publish the patterns and photographs that accompanied this article, but we shall be glad, with Miss Macomber's permission, to send the cuts to anyone who desires to obtain them.—THE EDITOR.

ANNOUNCEMENT

The JOURNAL OF HOME ECONOMICS, with the consent of the Council, has been selected as the official organ of the Home Economics Section of the Central Association of Science and Mathematics Teachers.

The announcements of that Association will in the future appear in the JOURNAL, while the chairman of the section has agreed to furnish to the JOURNAL a certain number of articles especially for high school teachers.

The JOURNAL on its part, while not neglecting other phases of the work, is planning to consider more definitely than ever before the interests of the secondary school and welcomes to its constituency this body of high school teachers.

May this coöperation be of value both to the Central Association and to the American Home Economics Association.

BOOKS AND LITERATURE

Any book or periodical mentioned in this department may be obtained through the JOURNAL OF HOME ECONOMICS if the Journal price is listed.

School Credit for Home Work. By L. R. ALDERMAN. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1915, pp. 181. $1. By mail of the Journal, $1.07.

The idea of establishing habits of homemaking is by no means new. The pedagogical view, however, that the school should give credit for industrial work performed at home is by no means widespread. The educational value of such things as the following has been inadequately estimated: helping with the supper, the kitchen work, putting a bedroom in order, milking a cow, making butter, feeding the pigs, mowing the lawn, blackening the stove, preparing smaller children for school, building furnace fires, taking care of plants and flowers, ironing clothes, mending, making bread, building fires and splitting wood.

Mr. Alderman's book is divided into two parts, the first of which is somewhat emotional and persuasive in character. He illustrates in various stories the methods by which some teachers may succeed in revealing "hidden springs of useful interest" and utilize these springs to nourish correct habit building and character formation. Part two is devoted to the reproduction of various charts illustrative of different plans for giving school credit in elementary schools and high schools. While most of the charts represent departures from traditional education and are best adapted for schools in rural communities, there is a wealth of suggestion for the adaptation of the plan to urban schools. The lists of subjects to be credited at school though practically studied at home cover the fields of agriculture, domestic arts and manual training.

The author has done his work in an appealing way and has presented a very delightful and instructive method of securing closer coöperation between the school and the home.

Child Training. By V. M. HILLYER. New York: The Century Company, 1915, pp. 287. $1.60.

Coming at a time when military discipline is a matter of great public moment, Mr. V. M. Hillyer's book on Child Training, with its strong insistence on Habit Drills, Prompt Obedience and Self Control, strikes an interesting note. Though Mr. Hillyer's aim is that of all experts in Child Training, namely, the early stimulation and training of all those phases of life which will make for the highest adult development and efficiency, the methods he uses swing far from those of some of his contemporaries. Mr. Hillyer avoids sentimentality. His method is simple, practical, direct; and characterized by a certain manly saneness that compels admiration.

Child Training is written for parents and teachers of children under the school age and sets forth a course of training surprisingly varied in its scope, opening as it does so many avenues commonly considered closed for children so young. The book serves essentially as a practical guide rather than as an inspiration to proper child training, and the success of its aim depends more on the proper administration of its comprehensive curriculum than to the attitude of mind it engenders in the teacher. In this respect Mr. Hillyer shows himself primarily a pedagogue rather than a reformer. He makes no attempt to win one to his views, there is no proselyting

in his pages. He simply states his method with briefness and sincerity, and a perfect confidence in its success; a confidence greatly strengthened doubtless by the memory of many years as the successful head of the Calvert School of Baltimore.

Modern Industry in Relation to the Family, Health, Education, Morality. By FLORENCE KELLEY. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1914, pp. 147. $1. By mail of the Journal, $1.10.

In 1907 Mrs. Kelley, writing about "Unskilled Mothers" in the *Century Magazine*, said: "It oftens seems that of the baby's three enemies, milkman, landlord and unskilled mother, the unskilled mother is the deadliest, because her opportunity for doing him harm is continuous and her means of attack are so varied." Seventeen years later Mrs. Kelly writes in *Modern Industry*: "After living more than twenty years in working class districts I am impressed with the deadly effects, in working class families, of two active continuing influences; the bad food supply and the ignorant mothers in relation to that supply." Mrs. Kelley's written and spoken words are like a steady incessant hammering against a rock of habit, ignorance and indifference.

In the chapter on the family Mrs. Kelley says, with that momentary discouragement that must at times come to the leader of a great cause: "Only little groups of reformers apply little remedies, and the continuance of the evil witnesses our failure. . . . . Our reformers discuss houses as though they were balloons, or biplanes, or clouds floating aloft, unrelated to the land on which they stand, unaffected by taxation," and then Mrs. Kelley proceeds to give the relationship. To her mind facts are clear and convincing; she never forgets the connection between the tenement, the mothers, the sick baby, the dirty milk and the city and the State laws. But before Mrs. Kelley leaves the "family" she gives us the brighter side: "The era of unbridled power exercised by irresponsible industry at the cost of the family (the fundamental institution of the human race) is slowly drawing to a close."

Mrs. Kelley never speaks in generalities, and she is never afraid. In the chapter on health she gives a vivid picture of the candy industry. One can almost see the room where the fine chocolate bon-bons are made, "a cool refreshing temperature, filled with pure air," and one can feel her indignation as she tells us that this is "not for the sake of the workers but for the candy." One is conscious of Mrs. Kelley's never ceasing fight for the children, in her descriptions of that candy which she calls "poisonous trash which mission Sunday Schools buy for their Christmas trees."

"Far more would have been gained," she writes in the chapter on health, "if the energy spent in strikes for shorter working hours had all been directed toward enacting and enforcing statutes." Again and again she cries out "We struggle by petty retail measures. . . . . Industry produces disease by wholesale." "Never was a nation so rich as we are; yet we are confronted by chronic, wholesale poverty, inextricably associated with gross ignorance."

Mrs. Kelley always sees the truth; not what men call the truth. "Thou shalt not kill" means to her just what it says. "An individual murderer of an individual person pays with his life for his crime, but owners of tenement houses do not count themselves infanticides though the death rate of babies in tenements is twice as large as elsewhere. . . . . Builders, managers, stock and bond holders of factories are not punished as murderers, though a hundred and more men and women perish by fire and smoke in a single work room. . . . . The human mind accepts without revolt that to which it is accustomed from childhood. Cannibals were not horrified at eating their grandmothers; soldiers plan murder systematically years in advance."

In the last chapter, Morality in Connection with Industry," we are once more given the more hopeful view. Whether or not we are aware of it, whether we like it or not, we are living in the initial stages of the

change from work done almost universally for private gain, to work in the service of all."

Home Making and Home Keeping: A Text-book on Home Economics. By GRACE J. FERGUSON. San Juan, Porto Rico: Department of Education, 1915, pp. 278.

This book is stated to be a text-book for the first two years' work in Home Economics in the Public Schools of Porto Rico. It embraces instruction in cooking and sewing, and deals with the subjects in a simple form.

The instructions throughout emphasize the use of home-grown fruits and vegetables, and at the season of the cheapest cost; also wherever practicable, the use of home made apparatus, as the oven made of an oil can. As the importation into the islands of many things is expensive, it is important that one use the article at hand, rather than wait for an expensive one which perhaps may never be obtained.

The same standards cannot be set for young students or a primitive people as for those more advanced, and this fact may account for the lack of freedom allowed in the choice of subjects, which are very definitely outlined.

The lessons follow in sequential order, and if rightly presented ought to make a valuable course for the students. The illustrations used are fairly well done. It is regrettable that the English used in the book was not more carefully supervised.

Five Playlets. By HESTER DONALDSON JENKINS, Ph.D. Brooklyn: P. J. Collison and Company, 1915, pp. 39. $0.25.

As the introduction to this pamphlet states, it is written in accordance with the present vogue of such playlets as "a channel of education" that should be adopted throughout the country. The five little plays, prepared for the Department of Social Betterment, Brooklyn Bureau of Charities, are written so that they can be presented by children or adults without much scenery or costuming. Their titles suggest the phases of social betterment work which they are intended to foster: "Mother Goose Up-to-date," a health playlet; "Judith and Ariel," a fresh air playlet; "Our Friends the Foods," a food playlet; "In a Tenement," a tenement playlet; and "Killing Giants," a juvenile court playlet.

Perhaps "Our Friends the Foods" bids fair to be the most amusing. A mother gives a party for her boy and girl to which she invites Soup, Meat, Milk, Eggs, Bread, Cereal, Fruit, Vegetables, Pickles, Candy, while Tea, Coffee, Beer, Whiskey, and the ubiquitous Chewing Gum come uninvited. The various foods justify their appearance in rhyming speeches. Needless to say, Tea and Coffee are not allowed to remain and Beer and Whiskey are forced to take an even more ignominious departure, in spite of the wistful looks which the boy casts after them. In the dance which closes the play, all of the characters pair off except Chewing Gum; he is left to look on because he is "harmless but not good enough to dance at a party." There are those of us who feel that a noble opportunity has here been neglected; he really ought to have been driven off as summarily as the disgraced beverages because his manners are quite impossible in any decent society.

Efficiency in the Household. By THETTA QUAY FRANKS. Garden City, N. Y.: Doubleday, Page and Company, 1915.

Mrs. Franks has adopted the plan laid out by Mrs. Richards long ago, a menu for three weeks, which with slight changes is suitable for the year round. These menus may be adapted to the author's needs, but they lack originality and offer little of value to others. It is a question whether each housekeeper may not better devise her own menus, suiting them to the numbers and physical condition of those she has to feed, than to depend upon any detailed plan like this. In general the bills of fare are intended for families of limited income and for use for household employees in more "complex" households, but they seem to have no scientific basis and to the reviewer seem unattractive for the amount of money expended.

Incidentally, one wonders whether an expenditure of $14.36 for meat, fish, eggs and bacon out of a total of $26.56 for food for the week makes a proper proportionment, and whether one-half pound of coffee per day is not a generous allowance for six people.

A very brief preface is all that justifies the title, for the book is wholly made up of menus, lists of foods available each month, and blank spaces for records of further bills of fare and for household expenses.

The Treasure. By KATHLEEN NORRIS. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1914, pp. 186. $1. By mail of the Journal, $1.08.

An interesting story based on the familiar "servant problem." Mrs. Salisbury has struggled more or less ineffectually for many years with the problem of finding a competent maid to do for a moderate wage the housework for a family of five. Finally, worn out with her efforts to manage the household with the help of a slovenly maid through a hot summer, she has a nervous breakdown. Her husband and her pretty "modern" nineteen-year old daughter "Sandy" take the reins in their hands and engage as maid for the Salisbury family a graduate of the American School of Domestic Science, an endowed school where young women are given a three or four-year course training them for housework. The story is an account of the way in which "the treasure" performed her duties and of the readjustments necessary between mistress and maid.

The novel, while offering no complete solution of the servant problem, is in several ways distinctly suggestive. It places a valuable emphasis upon the necessity of putting housework upon a plane with other kinds of dignified employment for young women; of systematizing the work of the household; of doing away with that feeling of class distinction which a certain type of woman wishes to exist between herself and her maid. It is also decidedly interesting in its insistence upon the practicability of a definite course of training planned to fit women to do housework, as a vocation, and of the advantages to many housewives of turning over this work to persons so trained.

Wanted: A Young Woman to Do Housework. By C. HELENE BARKER. New York: Moffat, Yard and Company, 1915, pp. 127. $1.00. By mail of the Journal $1.06.

"Under the present system of housekeeping there is not one day out of 365 that the domestic employee has a right to claim as a day of rest, not even a legal holiday."

Even the most conservative housekeeper will be startled at this statement and also perhaps at the following: "The fact is that housework has remained stationary while other work has gained in freedom and dignity."

The writer of these words has undertaken in her little book to prove that it is possible to give to the domestic employee the conditions that she finds attractive in the factory and other places of work, and that this simple change to definite short hours of work and one day of the week entirely free will put housework on a dignified level and attract a far better class of women than are now available.

As proof she cites the experience of a city woman who advertised as follows: "Wanted, A young woman to help with housework, 8 hours a day, 6 days a week, sleep home. Apply by letter only."

Within 24 hours she had received 105 applications, and whenever this advertisement has been used from 100 to 160 answers have been received.

The housekeeper, knowing what qualifications are necessary to meet her special needs, will select accordingly; one woman who did much entertaining required a good cook and waitress and arranged that her hours on duty should be 12 m. to 3 p.m. and from 4 p.m. to 9 p.m. The employer in this case prepared the breakfast.

A number of schedules are given to show that the work may be arranged with the help of the employer or of a woman by the day whose presence on the maid's day off makes

all run smoothly. The schedules for two or three employees are of course easily adjusted. But in all cases the employees are expected to have a tolerable efficiency in all kinds of work.

The advantages urged for the system are: 1. The superior willingness and intelligence of the worker that can be obtained under these conditions; 2. A saving of money, since the employee sleeps at home and takes one or two of her meals there. Such an experiment it would seem could best be undertaken by a small group of friends whose scale of living was somewhat similar.

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The Baby's First Two Years. By Richard M. Smith. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin Company, 1915, pp. 156. $0.75. By mail of the Journal, $0.80.

The Best Private Schools of the United States and Canada. By Porter E. Sargent. Boston: Porter E. Sargent, 1915, pp. 514 (An annual publication). $2.00 cloth; $3.00 leather.

Boyhood and Lawlessness. By Eleanor H. Adler. New York: Survey Associates 1914, pp. 215. (Russell Sage Foundation, v. 2 of West Side Studies carried on under the direction of Pauline Goldmark.)

Changes in the Food Supply and Their Relation to Nutrition. By Lafayette B. Mendel. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1916, pp. 61. $0.50. By mail of the Journal, $0.53.

Dollar Luncheons to Serve four People. By A.C.K., D.S.A., E.S.R., & L.B.C. Springfield, Mass.: A.M. Rowley, 1914. $0.25.

Efficiency in Home-making and First-Aid to Good Cooking. By Georgie Robertson, Washington, D. C., 1915, pp. 157 + viii. $1.00.

Learning to Earn. By John A. Lapp and Carl H. Mote. Indianapolis, Bobbs-Merrill Company, 1915, pp. 421. $1.50. By mail of the Journal, $1.58.

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PAMPHLETS RECEIVED

An Improved Respiration Calorimeter For Use in Experiments with Man. By C. F. Langworthy and R. D. Milner. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1915. Superintendent of Documents. Reprint form the Department of Agriculture, Journal of Agricultural Research, vol. 5 (1915), no. 8, pp. 299–348, pls. 7.

Beans and Similar Vegetables as Food. By Lucile Brewer and Helen Canon. Ithaca, N. Y.: New York State College of Agriculture at Cornell University, June 1,1915, pp. 181–200. (Cornell Reading Courses, vol. 4, no. 89. Food series no. 16). Free to residents of New York State. Address the Department of Home Economics, College of Agriculture, Ithaca, N. Y.

Clean-up and School Improvement Day. December 10, 1915. Montgomery Ala. Department of Education, Bulletin no. 45 (2d ed.) 1915.

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The Electric Cooking Problem. R. E. Frickey, *Jour. Electricity*, 34 (1915), no. 23, pp. 475–478, figs. 4.

Electric Cooking and Heating In Private Houses. W. A. Gillott, *Jour. Inst. Elect. Engin.* [London], 53 (1914), no. 237, pp. 42–53; abs. in *Sci. Abs.* Sect. B—*Elect. Engin.*, 18 (1915), no. 205, I, pp. 15, 16.

Chemical Examination of Ghee [Rendered butter]. K. H. Vakil, *Jour. Soc. Chem. Indus.*, 34 (1915), no. 7, p. 320.

Economy in Food During War. A. K. Chalmers, *Lancet* [London], 1915, II, no. 10, pp. 561–564.

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Vinegar. *Maine Sta. Off. Insp.* 70 (1915), pp. 69–80. Directions for the home manufacture of vinegar are given, together with the results of the inspection of a number of samples.

The Effect of the Mineral Content of Water on Canned Foods. H. L. Huenink and E. Bartow, *Jour. Indus. and Engin. Chem.*, 7 (1915), no. 6, pp. 495, 496.

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The Lye Hulling of Corn for Hominy. J. W. Marden and J. A. Montgomery, *Jour. Indus. and Engin. Chem.*, 7 (1915), no. 10, pp. 850–853. Data are reported regarding the effect of different substances on the hulling of corn and the details necessary to secure the best product are discussed.

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EXCHANGES

HOMEMAKING FOR BOYS

Much is being said and written nowadays about courses in homemaking for girls, but all is silence with reference to the part the boys must eventually play in that important institution. To be sure, boys are being educated along the lines of money getting and money spending, but not much information can they get from the schools that will fit them to participate properly in home activities and the real essence of home life.

The notion has been entirely too prevalent that the man is simply the provider—the furnisher of the wherewithal, with no other real function in the home. Could courses be gradually and judiciously offered which would help to overcome this notion? There certainly needs to be developed in the boys the homing habit; for the lack of it is what ruins many a boy and runs many a matrimonial launch aground.

It may be that such a course as suggested would not appeal to the boys. They may regard it too effeminate. If so, may not this only argue the greater need of it? It may be that some wise and sane people can discreetly and with dignity and good sense work into certain of their courses for boys such practical considerations as home duties and responsibilities, home economy and accounting, home relations and government, home building and furnishing, the sanctity of home ties, man's place in the modern home. Thus may there come to the word *homely* its better and finer meaning.

Whether or not the schools can properly do anything along this line, the fact remains that there is pressing need of just such information and training somewhere.—*Industrial Arts Magazine.*

NATURAL STORAGE

Experiments have shown that in many of the large caves so numerous in Kentucky the atmosphere is so dry and the temperature so even throughout the year that citrus fruits stored in them remain in perfect condition for many months. Lemons have been kept in one of these caves for two years without losing any of their freshness. Associations of fruit growers in states farther south have concluded after careful experimentation, that through this method of storage these fruits can be held long enough to insure stable market prices.—*The Independent.*

NEWS FROM THE FIELD

The Detroit Meeting. The American Home Economics Association this year for the first time arranged a meeting in connection with that of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association, held at Detroit, February 19–26.

This is from many standpoints the most important educational meeting of the year and offers an unusual opportunity to further the interests of Home Economics.

This first experiment proved so successful that it seemed the universal opinion that it should be repeated each year.

The Association held two sessions, as well as a meeting of the Council and of the Executive and Finance Committees.

Perhaps it was chiefly due to the activities of the Detroit Association that approximately three hundred people were present at each session. Certainly it was true that much of our enjoyment was due to their courtesy and hospitality.

The President of the Association, Miss Van Rensselaer, was suffering from a severe cold and had lost her voice, so that Miss Marlatt, the Second Vice-President, served most acceptably as the acting presiding officer, though the guiding hand of the President was felt throughout the meeting.

Dean Talbot, the First Vice-President, was also on the platform in the afternoon and presided during Miss Marlatt's speech. The program was presented practically as announced. Miss Kinne was not able to be present but some additional speakers took her place. Mr. Dodd, Secretary of the National Society for Promotion of Industrial Education, gave a report of the present status of the Smith-Hughes bill and asked and was granted a further indorsement of the bill by the Association.

Mrs. Burridge, of Vermont, came to us from the section of the State Supervisors of Rural Schools that unfortunately had its Household Arts program at the same time as our morning session. Mrs. Burridge presented some of the problems of the rural school under New England conditions, differing widely from those of the West.

The morning session was opened by Professor Works, in charge of the Rural Agricultural Section with whom we were in joint session in the morning, who asked and answered the questions: Have we enough body of material to justify our work? Do we know what should be taught, or how? What is the social need of this work? He emphasized the need of more time.

Miss Berry of the University of Minnesota discussed the noonday lunch problem as a feeding problem, an educational question and a management problem. Her paper was so suggestive and helpful that we are hoping she will be persuaded to allow us to publish it in the JOURNAL.

President Ednah Rich, of the Santa Barbara Normal School of Manual Arts and Home Economics, discussed the "home visitor," outlining the history of this work and showing how it has been developed in California.

The interests of the JOURNAL were presented by the Editor and her request for suggestions have already met with the response of several letters.

The afternoon session opened with a report of the work in the Detroit schools presented by Miss Charlotte Keene, a Detroit teacher, that gave an insight into the methods in use in a great public school system.

Dean Talbot's few words introducing Miss Marlatt made us realize the great growth of our movement and Miss Marlatt herself showed how much thought has been put upon the solution of our problems. Her

paper roused a vigorous discussion that continued as long as time allowed.

Miss Bevier, of the University of Illinois, as always, gave a most suggestive paper, some of which we hope to repeat in the JOURNAL.

Miss Florence E. Ward, Office of Extension Work North and West, States Relations Service, U. S. Department of Agriculture, added a few words before the close of the meeting.

The meeting of the Council will be more fully reported later. The most immediate question discussed was that of the place of the annual meeting. Though Miss Berry did not withdraw her invitation to Minnesota it is much more convenient for her to have us come another year. The result of the postal card questionnaire showed that a large majority of those answering preferred to have the meeting in the East since the N. E. A. meets here this year.

Miss Van Rensselaer has invited us to come again to Ithaca and those of us who received Cornell's hospitality a few years ago would gladly accept her invitation. The decision between Ithaca and a place nearer New York was left to the Executive Committee and will be reported immediately.

Child Labor Conference. The twelfth annual conference on child labor which has just closed its sessions at Asheville, N. C., was one of the most important in the history of the National Child Labor Committee. All of the sessions were well attended and some of them overflowed into the largest auditorium in the city.

The discussion at the Conference naturally turned on the actual conditions in North Carolina and whether the action of the Congressmen from the state in opposing the Keating-Owen bill represented the feeling of the majority of the people or merely a few cotton-mill owners. The local speakers were emphatic in declaring the child labor problem acute in North Carolina, thereby corroborating facts brought out by the National Child Labor Committee in its recent investigations. Answering the "poor widow" argument so frequently advanced, Dr. George T Winston of Asheville said, "The mill men say that they are looking out for the children of widows. Then there must be more widows here than in any other state in the Union, judging by the numbers of children employed. If child labor was ever necessary here, the need no longer exists." All of the local speakers, except representatives of the cotton interests, agreed that North Carolina is entirely able to take care of the families who actually depend on their children for support, and that the children of the state are an asset too valuable to carry the burden of family support.

The real issue was whether North Carolina should meet her problem by state or federal regulation. Some facts in the history of attempted child labor legislation in the state were given at the first session by Hon. Zebulon Weaver, of Asheville, who sponsored the child labor bill that was defeated by the last state legislature. He said the children of North Carolina would never be saved until Congress acts. "It is a day of conservation," said Mr. Weaver, "We conserve our trees and our cattle. Is it not time to conserve the health and welfare of our children?"

The question of federal regulation resolved itself into a debate between Congressman Britt of Asheville, and Congressman Keating, of Colorado. Mr. Britt voted against the Keating bill last week in Congress, and he came to the conference to explain that he voted against it for two reasons: first, because he considers it unconstitutional, and second, because he does not consider it humanitarian in its effect on the children. He opposed the bill on constitutional grounds because he believes it is a regulation of manufacture rather than commerce, and therefore not comparable to other interstate commerce acts. His objection to the bill on humanitarian grounds was his conviction that by taking children out of industry it will result in their ultimate ruin because they will do nothing but idle on the streets. He declared himself in favor of a state law similar to the Weaver bill defeated here last year.

In answering Mr. Britt, Mr. Keating argued that no bill could be condemned as unconstitutional until a definite constitutional objection or inhibition could be found in it, and that no man had been able to discover any clause in the constitution or in Supreme Court decisions which could prove this bill unconstitutional. On the other hand he cited a number of Supreme Court decisions to prove it entirely constitutional.

Mr. Keating found Mr. Britt's arguments for state legislation equally faulty. "Mr. Britt says he favored the Weaver bill of last year. The Weaver bill was even more stringent than this federal child labor bill. If the federal bill will take the children out of industry and put them on the streets why would not the Weaver bill have done the same thing? As a matter of fact neither bill would put them on the streets. The children will be in school most of the time, and they will have some time for play too."

Women were present in large number at all the conference sessions and gave every evidence of being keenly alive to the importance of the problem and of the fact that they might help to bring North Carolina up to standard.

National American Conference. Miss Emma Smedley was appointed delegate from the American Home Economics Association to the National American Conference held in Philadelphia, January 19–20, 1916.

It is the object of the Committee to act as a Clearing-house for all the various organizations throughout the country working with the immigrant.

The Committee recognizes that Americanization is a complex process, produced by many agencies, and not to be swiftly accomplished. But it believes that the English language, American citizenship and American standards of living are, without question, the first steps.

Miss Frances A. Kellor (Third Vice-President) strongly emphasized the fact that it is the American citizen's attitude toward his foreign-bred neighbor which determines the success of this great national task.

Some of our leading statesmen and educators were present and appealed to every citizen to do his part.

A Textile Exhibition. The Newark Museum Association of Newark, N. J., held an exhibit of the textile industries of New Jersey February 1 to March 18 to include cloth making, knitting, embroidery, rug weaving, felt hat making and allied industries.

The Museum endeavored to show, in the History of Textiles of New Jersey, the history of textiles of all time. They showed articles made by the Indians before the white man came; Colonial blue and white coverlets, samplers, bead bags, and linsey woolsey, collected by the Federation of Women's Clubs of the State of New Jersey. They took the commercial exhibit and put it up in a dignified art museum way. They aimed to show not only the finished products, but also processes from primitive spinning and weaving to modern power machines, and the development of each fibre from the fibre itself to the finished cloth.

A great deal of educational work was done in connection with the exhibit. Classes of school children, sales people, club women and other groups were conducted through the exhibit by special instructors.

The College of Industrial Arts at Denton, Texas gave during January a short course in Home Economics extension work to over thirty of the County Canning Club and Home Demonstration Agents of the State, planned directly for the agents themselves and indirectly to meet the conditions and needs of the farm home.

President F. M. Bralley and Clarence A. Tripp, director of the extension service of the college had charge of the work. Miss Virginia Babb, domestic art; Miss Corabel Weimer, domestic science; Prof. C. H. Yarborough, rural arts and sciences; Miss Jessie H. Humphries, history and the social sciences; Miss Willie I. Birge, biology; and Miss Anna M. Cron, manual arts and house planning, were among the directors of departments who gave courses, while Miss Floris S. Culver, domestic science, and others shared in the work.

The canning club workers themselves contributed to numbers of programs, especially those demonstrating the making of fireless cookers, the canning of meat in tin cans, jelly making and the canning of vegetables, while a series of evening lectures was given, bearing upon rural extension service by women. Prominent visitors and speakers included Miss Ola Powell and O. B. Martin, from the United States Department of Agriculture; Dr. W. B. Bizzell, president of the Agricultural and Mechanical College of Texas; Miss Bernice Carter, state agent for canning club work in Texas; Miss Alice Keeler, state agent for Louisiana; and J. L. McLain, of the Bureau of Animal Industry of the United States Department of Agriculture, who gave a practical demonstration of butter making in the farm home. Miss Jessie P. Rich of the University of Texas introduced the subject of the "National Baby Campaign" to the canning club and home demonstration agents.

A Vacation Canning Club. An interesting experiment was tried at the Webster Avenue Grammar School, in Providence, of starting a canning club, under the direction of Mrs. Margaret Titchener. The work was suggested by a canning demonstration given by Professor Thomas of the Rhode Island State College. More than forty children joined the classes that were held during the school vacation. Not only were fruits canned, but carrots, beets, beet tops, string and butter beans.

A Visitor's Day brought many interested housekeepers to learn as well as observe. The course became so popular that boys asked to join. Pictures were taken of the class and published in the Providence papers. One of the market men was glad to exhibit the canned vegetables.

The last of August an exhibition was given at the school with hundreds of jars of fruits and vegetables displayed. The equipment was very simple, much of it brought from the teacher's home. Mrs. Titchener volunteered her work.

Housekeeper's Short Course in Home Economics. The Florida State College for Women gave a short course to housekeepers February 22 to March 5. The course included work in sewing, cooking, nutrition, home care of the sick, and art and literature in the home.

The Annual School for Home Demonstration Agents was given in the department the last week of the short course. Students of the short course were given an opportunity to attend the afternoon and evening meetings of this school.

Brief Notes. Miss Anna Barrows, at the close of her Housekeepers' Conferences at the State Agricultural Colleges of Oregon and Utah, spent February in California. While the guest of Miss Vail at Mills College, Miss Barrows spent a day at the University of California and one at Stanford University. At the Palo Alto High School, Miss Barrows gave the boys, on request, a talk on the value of Home Economics for the boys. The keen interest shown by the boys is indicative of a still larger class in the boys' cookery course in the High School. At the Stanford Women's Club House at Stanford University, Miss Barrows, in her attempt to make the women think upon the value of Home Economics for every university girl and of its value in opening up many avenues toward various vocations, aroused a very lasting interest in Home Economics as a college course.

After leaving California Miss Barrows visited the South and gave lectures at the School of Instruction for Home Economics Extension Agents, at Mississippi Agricultural and Mechanical College.

A notable pure food exhibit for a small town was held under the auspices of the Woman's Club in the Village Hall, Barrington, Ill., February 1–4. Among the speakers were Mrs. Baker, the author of the textile articles in the JOURNAL; Miss Winifred Collins, in charge of Home Economics at Chicago Commons and chairman of the Food and Markets Committee of the Woman's City Club; and Mrs. Bley, President of the Chicago Housewife's League.

The topics dealt with food sanitation, and municipal markets, as well as houseplanning, house decoration and the budget.